

The Historical Outlook

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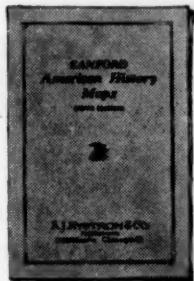
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Western Learning in Japan before the Coming of Perry

BY ARTHUR M. HYDE, UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

For 214 years the only Europeans allowed in Japan were the Dutch. Japan was first visited by Europeans about 1540. From that time, for a century, Europeans were freely allowed to visit Japan and they did so occasionally, some impelled by the missionary spirit, and some by the desire for gain. During that century the influence of the Spanish and Portuguese missionaries was so potent that large numbers of Japanese adopted Christianity, the religion of Europe. The Japanese government was alarmed at this development, and in 1638 excluded the Portuguese from the land. The Spaniards had been expelled earlier, and earlier still decrees had been issued for the suppression of Christianity. In 1636 the country was further sealed by the following decrees: that no Japanese could leave the country, and that if anyone were taken in the attempt the penalty was death; that any Japanese living abroad would be executed if he returned; and that no ship of ocean-going dimensions should be built in Japan.¹

In 1641 the Dutch, who had already been given the privilege of trading with the Japanese, were assigned the island of Desima in the port of Nagasaki, and permitted to bring goods there and sell them under stringent regulations. The Dutch, it was understood, were not missionaries and would make no effort to Christianize the Japanese. Occasional attempts were made by the English to obtain access to the Japanese market, but without avail, and until after the middle of the nineteenth century, Japan was sealed to all Europeans except the Dutch, and they were pretty closely confined to their little island in the harbor of Nagasaki. Once a year, in later years not so often, the Dutch were expected to make a journey to Yedo and pay their respects to the Shogun.

For many years the Japanese seemed to care little that they were isolated from the Western World. As time went on though, one thing or another happened to arouse their curiosity or to make them think that there were things they ought to know which others could teach them. From the first Japanese interpreters were forced, if not to learn the Dutch language, at least to know a limited number of Dutch words. Products brought in by the Dutch and presents taken to the Shogun at Yedo were object lessons. After a while some Japanese got hold of Dutch books, though for many years opposition of the authorities and ignorance of any European language made it impossible to become much acquainted

with their contents. From time to time, men more intellectual than the merchants came out from Holland and lived at Desima largely for the sake of finding out things about Japan and the Japanese. Several physicians went to Japan and lived perhaps two or three years. Dr. Kaempfer was there from 1690-1692, Dr. Thunberg in 1775-1776, and Dr. von Siebold from 1823-1829. All these men wrote books about Japan.

Up to 1700 the penetration into Japan of Western knowledge and information about the West would seem to have been negligible. There remained the tradition of the coming of the religion of Europe and its tragic suppression, but the intellectual contribution of Dutch merchants was very small, indeed, and an occasional visit like that of the English in 1672 was of little consequence. In the next half century, however, we see the beginning of a real interest in the outside world. During this period, we are told, the thermometer, the weather glass, the camera obscura, glass works, and other curiosities originating in Europe began to be seen frequently and people were becoming familiarized with them.² From 1709 to 1715 Pere Giovanni Batista Sidotti, a Catholic priest, was held as prisoner in Japan, and his presence there aroused so much interest that a Japanese wrote an account of his coming and detention. In examining him, the Japanese officials showed considerable interest in what he had to tell them about the countries of Europe. He was even allowed to speak fully about his religion and they questioned him about the learning of Europe. Two volumes containing the examination of the prisoner were sent to the government.³

Serious attempts to become acquainted with European learning would seem to have begun during the rule of Yoshimune, who was at the head of the government from 1713 to 1744. He was liberally inclined, rescinded the order against foreign books and even gave to two of his subjects the task to study Dutch works.⁴ Their attempts to learn Dutch remind one of the ambition of Petrarch and Boccaccio to learn Greek, and of the poor success they had in accomplishing their object. As in the case of the Italians, lexicon, grammars and competent teachers it was impossible for the two Japanese to obtain. However, they went to Nagasaki, put themselves in contact with the Japanese who served as interpreters to the Dutch, and succeeded in learning 400 words

with etymology, pronunciation and derivation. Perhaps they learned more, for one of them translated a botany from the Dutch, the first book to be rendered into Japanese from a European language.⁵ And we are told that the one who first became an accomplished Dutch scholar, Ryotaku Maeno, learned from the other of these two, 500 words. Maeno and his friend, Sugitai Tusai, were anxious to master the Dutch. Their experiences in making a beginning of the study are told by Sugitai. His account shows the meagre knowledge of the language the interpreters possessed. One to whom these students went, said to them: "It is useless for you to try. It is not by any means an easy thing to understand their speech. For instance, if we want to ask what drinking water or wine is, we have no means than to begin with gesture. If it is wine, we must first imitate pouring wine into a cup and then lifting it up to the mouth, ask what that is? They will say, 'Drink.' But when we wish to know what drinking much or little is, we have no means of asking....I was born into a family of interpreters, and have been used to these things all my life. Yet, I am fifty years old now, and I understand for the first time the meaning of the word 'to like' in this journey [from Nagasaki to Yedo]....It is by such a tedious process that we, who see the Dutch every day, have to learn. You who live in Yedo must not hope to do much." So Sugitai was discouraged and, for the moment, gave up the task. A little later though, he was shown a book on Anatomy (Sugitai was a physician) and he noticed from the plates that they differed in important particulars from what he supposed they should be. Soon after this he had the opportunity of witnessing the dissection of an animal, and he found that the plates in the Dutch book were correct. So Sugitai, Maeno, and another friend set out in earnest to learn Dutch that they might read the Anatomy. Maeno, as stated above, already knew a few hundred words, but the task went very slowly. This is the way they found out the meaning of "verheven," which was said of the nose. They found that the word was used of a tree when a branch is cut off, and also that a pile of dirt is "verheven." "A bright thought came to me," says Sugitai, "that when the tree whose branch is cut off heals, the place is slightly elevated, and again that the dirt accumulated will, of course, be elevated. The feeling of joy which I experienced then cannot be told." So they plodded on and, in the course of a year, became able to go over ten lines of coarse print in a day. After four years Sugitai succeeded in completing his translation of the Anatomy. With fear and trembling he published the book, as up to that time no foreign books had been issued from a Japanese press since the days of the Jesuits, who had been expelled from Japan about two hundred years before. The book, however, was well received. Sugitai's companion, Maeno, devoted himself to learning all he could about Western civilization.⁶ There seem to have developed two groups of "Dutch Scholars," one devoting itself, as Sugitai did, to the study of European medical science, and the other, of

which Maeno is an example, reading and studying more widely. This dual development took place in the second and third quarters of the eighteenth century. Sugitai's translation of the Anatomy was published in 1774.

It was about this period that Dr. Thunberg, for a short time, served with the Dutch at Desima as physician. He testifies to the interest some of the Japanese were taking in acquiring information. He was on good terms with the interpreters, and found them willing to impart information and anxious to gain it. Two Japanese who called on him had a number of Dutch works on botany, surgery, and medicine, and Thunberg sold them others.⁷ He came across a dictionary in quarto of 906 pages in Latin, Portuguese, and Japanese, which may have been a relic of the days of the Portuguese missionaries.

The eagerness of certain Japanese to become acquainted with Western learning is testified to by one of the directors of the Dutch merchants at Nagasaki. He was there about 1780.

"During my residence in Japan," he says, "several persons of quality at Yedo, Miyato, and Osaka applied themselves assiduously to the acquisition of the Dutch language, and the reading of our books. The prince of Satsuma, father-in-law of the present shogun, used our alphabet to express in his letters what he wished a third person not to understand. The surprising progress made by the prince of Tamba, by the physicians to the shogun, and several others, enabled them to express themselves more clearly than many Portuguese born and bred among us at Batavia. The privilege of corresponding with the Japanese, allowed through special favor, facilitated to them the learning of Dutch."⁸

That a good deal of interest developed at this time in Dutch learning is indicated by the division into parties over the matter. Those devoted to the study of Western culture desired to enlarge their intercourse with Europe and called those opposed "Frogs in a well," because their vision was so narrow and limited. During this period one of the liberal councillors was assassinated.⁹

It is impossible to trace in detail the growth in interest in the knowledge and science of the Western world. It seems to have increased by geometrical ratio. Maeno and Sugitai were the sources of the main currents, but there were other minor streams. Some of the teachers of the Dutch learning in the early nineteenth century were very popular. From one school we are told, 2,000 students went out; from another, 3,000.¹⁰ These students were chiefly interested in Western medical science, but there were many who became engaged in other studies. "It was through this [the Dutch language]," a Japanese writer says, "that something of the laws of nature came to be known. It was through this that something of the history of Europe, in fact, of the world was understood. Above all, if this had not somewhat prepared the public mind, we would not now be taking advantage of facilities which free intercourse with other countries has opened to us."¹¹

We are told that Russian activity in Asia early in the nineteenth century shattered Japanese indifference to foreign affairs, and set them to thinking about measures of coast defence.¹² Fear of Russian aggression also increased anti-foreign agitation. Nariaki, of Mito, had anti-barbarian principles inculcated until "expulsion of the barbarians" became the creed of the empire. However, Nariaki did not despise Western learning and often sent retainers to Nagasaki to gain new knowledge about the West.

An incident of this period of hostility to Russia was the capture of Captain Golownin, who was held a prisoner in Japan from 1811 to 1813. From the narrative which he wrote we learn that some of the Japanese whom he met were interested in European affairs and Western science, and had acquired considerable knowledge of these matters. He found interpreters who were able to serve him after a fashion in communicating with Japanese officials and others. He became acquainted with an astronomer who had European instruments for determining latitude,¹⁴ and another Japanese who was familiar with geometry and could prove that the square on the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle is equal to the sum of the squares on the other two sides.¹⁵ He also met a Japanese who had been to Russia on a diplomatic errand and had carefully made notes of what he had learned.¹⁶ The information, though not very full or very accurate, at least showed interest in the world outside Japan. We are told, also, of Japanese sailors who came from St. Petersburg with Resanoff in 1806. Golownin found some of the Japanese anxious to learn about the religion of the Russians, but he was too prudent to go deeply into that subject. The Japanese were much interested to hear about Napoleon's Russian campaign and approved of the Russian tactics of alluring him far into their territory.¹⁷ On the whole Golownin was pleased with the Japanese notwithstanding the severity of their laws against foreigners. Another Russian whose "Account of Negotiations with the Japanese" is published in the same volume, says concerning the dealings with the Japanese at this time: "Two great empires, hitherto almost unknown to each other, have made a vast step towards future intercourse, and there is even ground to hope that a further approximation, advantageous to both nations, may take place between them."¹⁸

It is not strange that some of the Japanese should become interested in the military knowledge of Europe. One of the Dutch scholars, Seikei Sugitai, grandson of the early Dutch scholar, Gempaku Sugitai, translated a treatise on gunnery. In the forties many Japanese leaders were aroused by the war of Great Britain against China and its outcome unfavorable to China. Guns were cast, and some imported from Holland.¹⁹ Nariaki, who became lord of Satsuma in 1851, strengthened his army, promoted military instruction and built the first warships of European type to be made in Japan.²⁰ Before 1855 one of those most interested in military defence sent some followers abroad to obtain military equipment.

and they came back with apparatus from Belgium.²¹ That Japanese were allowed to leave their country on this errand shows that the exclusiveness was breaking down.

There were many other indications that Japanese of the more thoughtful type were not satisfied to remain in a world of their own. The study of physics, and that of chemistry, were started before 1840. In 1809 the Nagasaki interpreters were ordered to make the English language a special study.²² In 1826 the Institute of Western Knowledge was established, where at first the Dutch learning only was taught, but where later English, French, German, and Russian, and books relating to geography, medicine, science, physics, chemistry, natural history, and military science were used.²³

How ardent some of the advocates of Western learning were, is well shown by the history of two of the leaders in the movement, Noboru Watanabe²⁴ and Takano Nagahide.²⁵ We have Japanese biographies of these two men which have been translated into English, the former by Miss S. Ballard, the latter by Dr. D. C. Greene.²⁶ Noboru, usually called Kwazan, was a man of much ability, of considerable artistic talent, and of some public importance in his clan, the Tawana clan. When over thirty he became interested in the Dutch learning. With Takano and several others he formed a club for the purpose of studying foreign geography and history, and, also, though this latter purpose was unrevealed, for improving the maritime defences of Japan. Kwazan had also asked a friend, who knew Dutch, to translate a book on Christianity for him. He had found out that there were kinds of government different from the Japanese and had criticized Chinese government officials of the Ming dynasty. The Japanese officials did not appear to know of Kwazan's request for the translation of the book on Christianity, but they found his views on government among his papers. His enemies interpreted his expressions as criticisms of the shogun's government and he was kept in prison for several months. Upon his release other charges were brought against him. These charges were felt by Kwazan to bring disgrace upon his feudal lord, and so, as a loyal samurai, he killed himself.

Takano Nagahide was more distinctly a Dutch scholar than his friend, Kwazan. Through his foster father he became interested in the Western learning when a boy, and at sixteen managed to get to Yedo from his home at Misuzawa, in the northern part of the island of Hondo. There he found physicians from whom he learned the elements of medical science, and gained some familiarity with the Dutch language. Then he found means to go to Nagasaki and take advantage of the instruction of Dr. Siebold, who was there at that time. Takano, like Maeno, of two generations before, became interested in the broader field of European learning, and did not confine himself to medicine. After his stay in Nagasaki, Takano obtained a position as translator with the Daimao of Hirato, who had many Dutch books in his library, but no one in his clan who could

read them. So Takano translated some of them, and thus acquired considerable scientific information. But he became convinced that his life work was to spread, as much as he could, the knowledge of the Western World. In this he was deeply patriotic. One of his teachers said of him, that "among all the several thousand students who had received instruction from him, Takano stood pre-eminent in his devotion to his country."²⁷

In Kyoto, and in Osaka, he found a number of students of Dutch learning, and there were also many at Yedo, where he seems to have lived most of the time. Here he was encouraged by one of the shogun's physicians, and published a book called *The Essentials of Medical Science*, and a work on anatomy, which had a wide circulation and gave him a great reputation. However, a book more famous and having a more important effect upon his fortunes was *Yume Monogatari* or *A Dream*. This was a protest against the policy of the government in refusing to receive the English ship, the Morison, bringing to Japan some castaways who were Japanese subjects shipwrecked in a storm at sea. "Such treatment as the Japanese government is responsible for," he said, "has never been found anywhere else in the world."²⁸ Moreover, England's enmity would be a great calamity to Japan. She will surely regard us as barbarians if we drive her ships away, and Japan will lose the name of Gikoku (Righteous Country) and the glory of her chivalry will pass away."²⁹ This book, or pamphlet, was very widely read. Takano's advice was not followed, though it is said that the knowledge of European affairs it showed impressed the authorities, and orders were given to strengthen the coast defences of Awa Izu (near Uraga).³⁰

However, this and other activities of the Dutch scholars aroused the hostility of certain friends of the old order, and one of them urged the punishment of the author of *Yume Monogatari*. No action was taken upon the matter at this time, however. During the thirties the Dutch learning was making headway and its advocates were having considerable influence, but all the while there were those among the government officials who were looking for a chance to check the growth of the movement. The chance came, and, on the false charge of trying to communicate with the barbarians, some of the Dutch scholars were arrested. The arrest and consequent suicide of Kwazan has already been mentioned. Four days later, Takano was arrested. He was tried and sentenced to imprisonment for life. In the sentence he was accused of having devoted himself to the Dutch learning, and by translating many Dutch books had been the means of bringing Dutch learning into vogue. His book *Yume Monogatari* was also mentioned in the sentence, and a brief summary of its contents given.³¹ He was in prison for several years, then escaped, but after a time was again taken and, like his friend, Kwazan, committed suicide. During the time when he was in concealment, he was able to take up again his work as translator and teacher of Western learning.

The influence of Kwazan Watanabe and that of Takano Nagahide are each greatly significant in the development of the Japanese nation. Kwazan, a talented artist, was bound by the tradition of loyalty to his lord, not well versed in Western learning, but broad-minded and able to see the advantage to Japan of a wider outlook. Takano had cut loose from feudal ties, but was, however, thoroughly patriotic, and made it his life work to acquaint Japan with European culture. Another Japanese, who, in a still different way, helped in the great changes which came to Japan, was Shoin Yoshida. He was, it has been said, the "principal figure in the great movement toward the restoration."³² He was not greatly influenced by the Dutch scholars, but is an example of those who, without being well acquainted with European civilization, saw from what he did learn, how absurd and impossible it was that Japan should continue to pursue her exclusive policy. His early training led him to reverence the emperor, who was then living in retirement at Yedo. What aroused him to see that Japan must change her policy of aloofness was the information brought to him when he was at the age of fifteen, concerning conditions in the outside world. A friend returning from Yedo informed him that,³³ "Just now [it was in 1845] the English are greatly extending their strength and are invading the East. India has already received the poison, China will be the next to be humiliated, and the flame will not die down until Ryukyn is reached and Nagasaki attacked."

He wished Japan to defend herself, and to take her place among the nations. He wished to become better acquainted with his own country, and also with the outside world. As a consequence of a journey to northern Japan, he lost his samurai title,³⁴ and, as a result of an attempt to leave Japan at the time of Perry's visit, he was arrested and imprisoned.³⁵ The effect of these experiences seems to have been to intensify his patriotism. It was the time when the spirit of nationalism was growing strong in the Western World. Shoin, better than the others of whom we have been writing, represents that spirit in Japan. An important element in his life was devotion to the emperor, as under him Shoin thought the forces of Japan could best be made effective. In supporting the emperor against the shogun, he belonged to the anti-foreign party, but he did not despise the foreigners, he recognized that there was much to learn from them, and that it must be learned before Japan could become a power in the world. Shoin died a martyr to his principles as did Watanabe and Nagahide. He was arrested and executed because of his resistance to the continued supremacy of the shogun's government in 1859.

Further light is shed upon the influence of Western ideas by a study of the early education of two Japanese who were among the most prominent in bringing about the new era. The work of the others, spoken of above, was accomplished for the most part before the barriers against foreigners were taken down, and before Japanese were allowed to leave their country.

These two, Okoubo Tosimitsu and Yukichi Fukuzawa, lived and worked during the early part of the Meitji era though their early education was received under the old régime. Okoubo seems to have received his inspiration to learn about the world outside of Japan from his grandfather, Minayosi.³⁶ He was influenced also by Nariaki, who became lord of Satsuma in 1855, under whom Okoubo served.³⁷ Minayosi studied at Nagasaki and later at Yedo. At the same time that he studied Dutch and the science of medicine, he picked up information about foreign lands, upon international relations, and upon navigation. Upon his return to Kogoshima he became interested in shipbuilding. Nariaki, of the same generation as Okoubo, had come into contact with those skilled in European science and had learned to speak and even to write Dutch, had studied physics and understood photography, telegraphy, and the steam engine. He was alive to the European menace, brought home to many Japanese by the Anglo-Chinese war. These influences were brought to bear on Okoubo at the age when his views were developing.

The character of the instruction in Western learning, and the difficulties still attendant upon attempts to master it when Perry visited Japan are illustrated in the chapters of Mr. Fukuzawa's biography, which tell how he acquired his education.³⁸ There were at several places, facilities for learning Dutch. Fukuzawa learned it at Nagasaki. Then he was anxious to attend the famous school of Ogata at Osaka, and was able, by selling some books and family treasures, to go there. The school is described as very disorderly, but as made up of students who were hard workers. "The beginners were taught the first rudiments of the Dutch grammar by means of two books reprinted in Yedo. Ten books on natural philosophy and medicine constituted the school library. As soon as the grammar was mastered the students set about making copies of these books for their own use. Among so many candidates for their few books, it was necessary for them to decide their turns by lot. As there was no foreign paper for sale, they wrote on glazed Japanese paper with Japanese ink and quills of their own make. At intervals of four or five days there were class readings of these copied books. The readings were presided over by either the head-student or by the best student of the highest class; and Ogata now and then gave lessons only to the highest class....Chemistry had a great attraction for the students. They were always making experiments with the most primitive and inadequate means....They eagerly dissected dogs, cats and the corpses of criminals, whenever the opportunity offered."

Fukuzawa, when at Osaka, had a chance to read a Dutch translation of a new work by Faraday. The eagerness with which he and his friends devoured new knowledge is shown by their copying from the book the part which treated of electricity. Later he realized the value of a knowledge of English, and, with a good deal of difficulty, learned that language. Still later, he was able to go abroad,—but it is our purpose now to speak only of European influence which came into Japan before Japan was opened to the outside world.

These men whose interest in European learning we have recounted were important men and had extensive influence. They, and others like them, were significant in the making of the new Japan. The extent of their influence and of the European learning which so deeply impressed them, cannot be measured, both because of the inherent difficulty of measuring intangibles, and also because material on the subject is lacking. Ito, Inouye, Okuma, Iwasaki, "cleverest of merchants," the able physician Hashimoto, lived in or visited Nagasaki, and were there convinced of the uselessness of the anti-foreign movement.³⁹ At least a few of the daimios were also convinced of the folly of the exclusion policy, and there was an element at the shogun's court ready when Perry arrived, to grant what he asked for. Dr. Greene found out that in a great many places in Japan there were Dutch scholars, or those who had come under their influence. That the party for foreign intercourse was already strong before Perry's arrival is indicated by the fact, attested to by a Japanese writer, that at no time were discussions between the parties for and against foreign intercourse so animated as in 1855.⁴⁰

When one thinks of the relative importance of the influences which made the new Japan, he is reminded of the Renaissance movement of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries in Europe. Ideas from Greece, Rome, the Hebrews, the Arabs, and the barbarian nations of the North, all combined to produce a result. Scholars dispute as to the relative importance of the several factors. So European learning combined with Oriental influence to produce the Japan of today. Thoroughly intermixed with the ancient civilization of Japan were the thought and the practical arts of China. Many years afterward came European science and the extraordinary achievements of the Western nations. It has been the design of this paper to show that at least a few Japanese did not wait for Perry and the formal opening of Japan to realize the significance of European development.

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¹ Brinkley, p. 655.

² Transactions of Asiatic Society, Vol. V, p. 209.

³ *Ibid.*, Vol. 9, p. 156ff.

⁴ "Fifty Years of New Japan," II, 136.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 137.

⁶ Tr. As. Soc., Vol. V, pt. 1, pp. 207-16.

⁷ Hildreth, "Japan, etc." (old edition), p. 410.

⁸ *Ibid.*, 430-31.

⁹ *Ibid.*, 429-30.

¹⁰ "Fifty Years," II, p. 143 ff.

¹¹ Tr. As. Soc., Vol. V, pt. 1, p. 216.

¹² "Fifty Years," p. 223.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 61.

¹⁴ "Captivity in Japan," I, 282-83.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, II, 120-21.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, II, 123.

¹⁷ *Op. cit.*, II, 193.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, II, 353-54.

¹⁹ "Fifty Years," I, 199.

²⁰ Courant's, "Okoubo," p. 50.

²¹ "Fifty Years," I, 200.

²² *Ibid.*, II, 292.

²³ *Ibid.*, 129. The date given was 1862, but as the Institute was founded by Iyenari shogun from 1787-1836, I assumed the figures 6 and 2 were reversed.

²⁴ Trans. As. Soc., Vol. XXXII, pp. 1-23.

²⁵ *Ibid.*, Vol. XLI, pt. 3, 379-492.

²⁶ These versions are not literal translations.

²⁷ Tr. As. Soc., XLI, 407.

²⁸ *Ibid.*, 427.

²⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 428.

³⁰ *Ibid.*, 442.

³¹ *Ibid.*, 442.

³² Tr. As. Soc., Vol. XLV, pt. 1, p. 125.

³³ *Ibid.*, p. 136.

³⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 144.

³⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 145-48.

³⁶ Courant's, "Okoubo," p. 42.

³⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 50.

³⁸ "Life," by Miyamori, pp. 12-29.

³⁹ *Far East*, Vol. I, March 20, p. 27, (1896).

⁴⁰ "Fifty Years," Vol. I, p. 62.

National Industrial Development through International Forces

BY JAMES EDWARD GILLESPIE, ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF EUROPEAN HISTORY, PENNSYLVANIA STATE COLLEGE

In these days, when the relations of nations to one another are of such vital concern, it proves most interesting to observe how far each should be thankful to its neighbors for the development of its industries. There were two great centers from which the early industrial education of Europe was derived, namely, Italy and the Netherlands. Italy, the land of the Renaissance, the seat and center of a cosmopolitan Roman culture, the meeting place of the Byzantine, the Saracen, and the Germanic civilizations, the home of the great trading cities, and of financial centers of the Mediterranean, was naturally, likewise, the land of craftsmen skilled in the finest industrial technique; while the Netherlands, the meeting place of the Teutonic and Celtic races, and subject to influences exerted by Italian settlers and from the neighboring British Isles, became the great emporium of the North, and rivaled Italy as mistress of the industrial arts.

To France was allotted the task first of adaptation, then of popularization, and, finally, of dissemination of an industrial technique which originated in Italy. France owes a profound debt to her eastern neighbor for her staple industries. The French sixteenth century expeditions for the conquest of Italian territorial possessions, like the Crusades of the Middle Ages,

proved of decided cultural value. "Astonished to find manners more elegant than theirs, a more general luxury, arts carried to a more exquisite perfection, and a civilization almost unknown in the North," the French recognized how inferior they were to the Italians, and became their disciples. Charles VIII. brought back with him, on his return to France, tapestries, books, tables, statues, furniture, and other precious objects, but, what was still more important, twenty-two Italian artists and artisans were induced to come to Amboise. There were jewelers, perfumers, embroiderers, manufacturers of velvet, tailors, illuminators, organ makers, joiners, turners, masons, and gardeners.

This Italian influence was continued under later kings. The goldsmiths' art was renewed by French artisans working under the most famous goldsmith of Italy, Benvenuto Cellini, who came to Paris in 1540. Likewise, in the first half of the century Italy gave tone to French dress and furniture. Among other things, nearly all the patterns of embroideries came from Italy, and tapestry workers were brought from Flanders and from Italy, which, under Francis I., made that industrial art flourish. Thus Italy had much to do with the formation of that taste for the beautiful which so characterizes modern French manu-

factures. It also played a large part in the foundation of that industry which, perhaps more than any other, characterizes modern industrial France. When Henry IV. launched the silk manufacturing industry in France, an Italian named Balbani directed the work. Other artisans from Italy taught, besides the culture of the silk worm, the art of manufacturing silks, and cloth of gold and silver. For the manufacture of Venetian colored glass and crystals, Italy also has to be thanked, while France owed to her neighbors to the north, the Netherlands, the manufactures of satin and, during the period of Louis XIV., of fine linen and lace. Artisans in each case were induced to come to France, French ambassadors even being charged to recruit them.

For her metallurgical industries, France was indebted mainly to Northern Europe. Under Colbert's direction, miners were brought from Sweden to open copper and lead mines, and he borrowed from Germany and Bohemia the art of making tin plate.

Thus France was always ready to secure from every source what pleased her, but never failed to place her stamp upon whatever she adopted, so making the fashion for its usage essentially French. She shared with Spain, her neighbor to the south, not only the merchandise resulting from her industrial renaissance, but also French artisans and workers during the sixteenth century flowed into the Iberian Peninsula, attracted by the riches pouring in from the New World and the possibilities in this undeveloped country. This influence became still stronger in the eighteenth century, when Spain was under Bourbon domination. As is well known, Spain in her earlier career had the Arabic civilization to thank for most of the industrial and agricultural arts. Even at the period of the height of her power and prosperity, she had relied largely on other European nations.

It was a strange circumstance that after the French had profited by the teachings of Italy, and from their own natural ability to found a flourishing industrial civilization, they should partially spoil the advantages thus won over other nations by an arbitrary act of religious persecution of the very classes who had been most instrumental in promoting it. French Protestants, who had been liberally tolerated in Catholic France by Henry IV.'s Edict of Nantes, were forced to flee in large numbers from the industrial centers by the revocation of that edict in 1685. The work which these performed as industrial missionaries was of immense significance.

No nation profited more than Prussia from this French industrial influence. No sooner had the Edict of Nantes been revoked than the Elector of Brandenburg, as Prussia was then called, issued the Edict of Potsdam, containing a general invitation to all French refugees to come and settle in his territories. Due to the extreme liberality of the terms offered by this Calvinist prince, about twenty-five thousand of them came to his lands. These had just submitted to the barbarities of the Thirty Years' War, and as a result had suffered vastly from depopulation and destruc-

tion of property. Even in days of prosperity, industries had been largely lacking. Prussia, in large part due to the leaven of the Huguenot refugees, was started on her road to economic prosperity. How much this basic part of Germany owed to these French instructors can only be realized by an enumeration of their accomplishments. Due to them, Prussia soon was manufacturing the woolen goods which it consumed, and, besides, was seeking a market for them in other parts of Germany, in Russia, Denmark, and Sweden. Hats and gloves, which all people of elegance and fashion had formerly bought from France, now came to be made at home, and even exported. The first paper manufactory, those of linseed oil, candles, silk goods, velvets, muslins, gauze, embroidery, brocades of gold and silver, ribbons, buttons, carpets, and tapestry were all introduced and flourished under the care of the Huguenot artisans. Except for the refugees, France would have long continued to furnish Germany with jewelry and goldsmith's work, in which she had excelled ever since the time of Cellini. With the immigration, hundreds of goldsmiths and jewelers settled in Berlin. After this the art of engraving was introduced, and watches and clocks, hitherto little used, now came into general use. The Huguenots likewise contributed to the art of metal founding, which France had long and successfully cultivated.

Frederick the Great continued the policy of his predecessors by settling large numbers of immigrants and by importing skilled workers from abroad, and thus creating new industries. By the year of his death, between one-fifth and one-sixth of the inhabitants of Prussia, or more than a million, were immigrants or descendants of immigrants. Thus such industries as those of velvet, silk stockings, handkerchiefs, and sugar refining came to be practiced.

Prussian agriculture likewise prospered through the influence of French refugees and the Dutch. Before their arrival, in every part of the land might be seen large plains rendered waste by war and from lack of laborers to cultivate them. Through the skill of these people such lands were restored, and Dutch engineers made new lands available by draining marshes.

The most valuable branch of agriculture with which the refugees enriched the country was the culture of tobacco, which soon was produced in sufficient quantities not only to supply the home market, but also for export. Before their coming scarcely any vegetables, even of the commonest kind, were produced. It was due to them that the art of horticulture was brought to perfection. Fields in the suburbs of Berlin were transformed into flourishing gardens. Seeds were imported from France, and also all the finest varieties of vine stock and orchard trees. It was likewise due to the French that green peas, French beans, asparagus, artichokes, and various salad greens were introduced.

It needs little reflection to realize how great the industrial debt of Eastern Europe to the nations to the west has been. Peter the Great, like the Great

Elector of Brandenburg, was intent upon the development of his country through the employment of foreign assistance. Upon his journey to Western Europe he everywhere invited foreign masters and artisans to come to Russia. Later his ambassadors at European courts assumed as one of their duties that of employment agent to "find and forward suitable capitalists and technically skilled persons" for Russian enterprises. To hasten the process of industrial education, in addition to the importation of these foreign technical instructors, Peter adopted a system of sending apprentices abroad to learn their business from foreign masters. Aristocratic Russian youths likewise went to other countries to learn western science.

Russia continued well into the nineteenth century dependent upon the skill and, to a considerable extent, on the capital of such nations as Germany, France, and Belgium to launch her industrial enterprises. Citing one typical example, it was due to a German immigrant, Ludwig Knoop, that the cotton spinning and weaving industry in Russia owes its beginning. As late as 1906 it is stated that to a very marked extent large-scale Russian industry and commerce were in the hands of German settlers, of whom there were 151,000 at that date.

It is fitting to conclude this discussion of the industrial debt of European nations to their neighbors by reference to England, the nation which has become the leading industrial country of Europe. An examination of the facts point to the conclusion that the greater the adaptation from outside influences, the greater the industrial prosperity becomes. From the Norman Conquest until the Industrial Revolution, England, commencing with scarcely any industries, profited so greatly from the lessons derived from the skilled artisans coming to her mainly from France and the Netherlands that it may be said that almost all the arts practiced in England until the eighteenth century were of Continental origin. Under this stimulus and that of an expanding commerce, after the inventions of the Industrial Revolution, England in turn became the source of knowledge of the technical arts.

Following the Roman period, the first industries were brought to England, then a rural country, by the Northmen, Normans, and Flemings. The English kings, like Continental sovereigns, followed a well-considered plan for building up the economic prosperity of their state through foreign skill. Long the protectors of the Jews, who were found useful as the financiers of the day, other foreigners were given special inducements to settle in England. Even William the Conqueror took the trouble to bring over a number of weavers from Flanders, and these were responsible for the prosperity of Norwich. Nearly three hundred years later Edward III. embraced the scheme of colonization with greater vigor. Due to political disturbances and to inundations of their land, he was able to induce many Flemish weavers to settle in England. These settlers taught the art of making woolen cloth to the native English.

Reliance was placed on foreign skill in other departments of English industry. The artisans of the king's mint, of whom in Edward I.'s reign there were two or three hundred, were foreigners, mostly Dutch. It is also interesting to note that in such an important industry as mining foreigners played a large part. German and Breton miners came in the thirteenth century to work the Cornish tin mines, and other Frenchmen were employed in the iron and lead industries, and the copper mines were all worked by Dutchmen. A new epoch in the progress of English mining was reached when Daniel Hochsteller, of Augsburg, was, in 1571, made master of the royal mines.

The manufacture of English ordnance also was begun through the employment of foreign skill. The important post of the "provider of the king's instruments of war" was filled during Henry VIII.'s and for three successive reigns by an alien. Gunners and armorers came from France, Germany, the Netherlands, and Italy.

Of vast importance to English industry were the various colonies of Protestant refugees who came from the Netherlands at the time of Alva's persecutions, and one hundred and twenty years later from France on the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. Cecil, Elizabeth's chief minister, was only too glad to welcome the first of these migrations, as he was anxious to develop English industry. The manufacture of steel was then begun by the Flemish, and wire making by the Dutch. Another staple English industry, that of cotton manufacture, may have been introduced from Antwerp at this time by Flemish immigrants. If this was not the case, the honor for the introduction must be given to the later Huguenot immigration. Lace making, pottery, clocks, glass, brass, needles, and cutlery manufacture, as well as engraving, owe their origin to these immigrants from the Netherlands. The rise of Lancashire and Birmingham as manufacturing centers seems to have been the result of their activities. Above all, the staple woolen industry was promoted, and under their stimulus the manufacture of worsteds, serges, and bays was developed.

The refugees who sought a home in England about the time of the revocation of the Edict of Nantes exerted, if anything, a greater influence than those of Elizabeth's reign. Silk weavers from Tours and Lyons were found among them, who brought to England looms such as those used in France, and taught the English improved methods of silk weaving. The silk industry of Lyons was brought to a standstill by this emigration and by the revolutionary disorders. Upon Bonaparte's coming to power, he attempted, through the French ambassadors, to lure back to France these valuable artisans. He was largely successful. Accordingly, during the nineteenth century, the English manufacturers put forth the utmost effort to attract the best French workmen, and, through offering large advantages, persuaded a great many to go to London and revive the manufactures which had been founded by their Protestant predecessors.

Nearly the same circumstances can be stated regarding the manufactures of white paper and plate glass, which were first founded in England by the refugees at the end of the seventeenth century. Sail cloth, linen, cambric, tapestry, and hat manufacture may likewise be credited to the Huguenots. In the case of the last-named article, the secret of the art was so completely in the hands of the Protestant refugees that after they left France for London this manufacture was not pursued in that country for forty years. Finally a French hatter named Mathieu, after having worked in London, stole the secret which had been carried to England by the refugees, and, after communicating it to the hatters of Paris, founded a large manufactory. Until this industry was thus returned to France, the French high society wore none but hats of English manufacture, and even the Cardinals at Rome sent to the Huguenot manufactory in England for their hats.

The economist, MacPherson, estimates that the new industries brought to England by the refugees, and the great development of English manufactures due to them, deprived France of an annual benefit of £1,880,000 from English trade.

The Dutch during the seventeenth century continued to influence English industry, both through many English visiting Holland and through Dutch artisans settling in England. Due to their influence, the art of dyeing cloth, making pottery and porcelain, cables and cordage for the navy, and many improvements in the mechanical and mining arts were introduced. The Dutch shipping and fisheries were also imitated. It was likewise due to foreign aid, especially that of the Dutch, that new methods of agriculture, new vegetables, and other crops were introduced and great public works executed. Even industrial organization was modified through foreign influence. It is highly probable, for example, that the Friendly Society and its later development, the trades union, originated with the refugee colonists.

Finally, in the eighteenth century, after English industry had been created in many cases, and built up in others, by foreign aid, after England had profited from the development of a world-wide commerce with her colonies and trading posts, there occurred in this country thus favored a remarkable period of industrial progress through new inventions and the employment of new methods of manufacture. This we commonly call the Industrial Revolution. In some respects it would seem to be more properly called the Industrial Evolution.

After the period of the Revolutionary and Napoleonic wars, many of the industrial secrets and the new machinery which had resulted from the Industrial Revolution in the island kingdom were, in spite of English attempts to monopolize the new achievements, carried to other European nations. Thus England, free from foreign invasion and political disturbance, had provided the conditions suitable for the further development of the industrial lore furnished her from the Continent, and now, in turn, she was to play a role somewhat similar to France in the earlier period

by providing the rest of the world with the most advanced industrial technique. Thus France, although it partly developed its own inventions, was greatly stimulated, and entered upon the Industrial Revolution on an extensive scale when, in 1825, the prohibition upon the exportation of machinery from England was removed, and the French were able more readily to obtain machines of the new type from England and to copy them for their own use.

One interesting example of how English ideas were transferred was the case of the steam hammer. James Nasmyth, originator of this invention, had the idea of such a hammer in mind for years before he actually patented it. A sketch which he had made was secretly copied by two French engineers, and it was put in operation at the Creusot iron works in 1841, before it was used in England. Belgium also affords a good illustration of how the Continent profited from English ideas. An Englishman named Cockerill, in 1816, introduced the method of smelting iron with coke, and founded at Seraing one of the finest iron works in Europe.

In Germany the industrial revival came, perhaps, more completely than in any other Continental country. This was due to the importation of machinery from England and the attraction to the manufacturing districts of many English factory foremen and operatives. These instructors enabled the Germans to compete successfully with the English and the French. Here the new industrial order was borrowed almost wholly from England, and Germany is "unexampled among western nations, both as regards the abruptness, thoroughness, and amplitude of its appropriation of the English technology."

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History of the Movement for Character and Citizenship Training in the Schools¹

BY DEAN MILTON BENNION, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF UTAH.

This paper will of necessity be restricted to a brief review of some recent significant movements for character and citizenship training.

During the latter part of the nineteenth century a notable attempt was made by the republic of France to provide systematic moral instruction in her public schools. In other European countries generally and also in Great Britain it was customary to give religious instruction in the schools. This having been excluded from the public schools of France, moral instruction on a purely secular basis was offered as a substitute. The results of this experiment are not encouraging, due apparently to the fact that the instruction was patterned after the abstract formalism of the Kantian Ethics. Both teachers and pupils were too often concerned about getting over this prescribed subject rather than about getting results in character development.

Meantime Great Britain was developing schools apart from the church—Board Schools—and there again the problem of a substitute for the religious instruction of the church arose. One of the most notable British exponents of moral instruction in the schools was Mr. F. J. Gould, whose methods were developed in India as well as in Great Britain. Mr. Gould also paid several visits to America and collaborated with American educators in developing methods of moral instruction. His "Children's Book of Moral Lessons" and his "Youth's Noble Path" are well known to students of moral education.

Among notable influences for moral instruction in American schools in recent times has been the Ethical Culture Society of New York, founded in 1876 by Dr. Felix Adler. In 1878 this society founded a free kindergarten. This has since developed into a school that reaches from kindergarten to college. In this connection the society has developed a course of study in moral education, first grade to senior high school, inclusive. Among the society aims, as set forth in 1894, are:

"Systematic moral instruction of the young, founded on true pedagogic principles," and "General education reform, with main stress on the formation of character as the purpose of all education."

Similar societies have been formed in Chicago, Philadelphia, St. Louis and Brooklyn. These have been united to form the American Ethical Union with headquarters in New York. The formation of societies of like nature in Great Britain and Ireland and in various countries of continental Europe led to the formation of an International Union of Ethical Societies. While these societies are mainly concerned with the moral instruction of their own members, they are also an influence tending to promote direct moral instruction in the public schools.

The Secretary of the International Ethical Union, Mr. Gustave Spiller, was largely instrumental in arranging the International Conferences on Moral Education held in England in 1908 and 1911 and in Holland in 1912.

Another notable movement, more directly related to the public schools, was the organization in 1908 of the American School Peace League, changed in 1919 to the American School Citizenship League. It aims "To develop an American citizenship which will promote a responsible world democracy and a real co-operation among the nations."

This League has branches in nearly every state in the Union, and affiliated organizations in many foreign countries. Its aim necessarily involves the whole range of character training. Among its notable contributions to this movement are its "Course of Study in History for the Elementary Grades,"² five volumes; and its "Course in Citizenship and Patriotism."³ The latter, prepared by the Massachusetts Branch of the League, provides moral lessons for grades one to eight, inclusive. Dr. Fannie Fern Andrews, Secretary of the League, has had a most prominent part in all of this work.

A third movement which is now having influence upon character education in the public schools is the Character Education Institution of Washington, D. C. This organization was formed in 1911 under the name, "The National Institution for Moral Instruction." Mr. Milton Fairchild, who had devoted his time since 1897 to experiments in visual lessons on morals, was made chairman.

This institution is now so incorporated as to be governed by nine ex-officio trustees—officers resident in Washington and officers of national organizations. These elect the chief executive officer of the institution. This board of trustees is, however, subject to the direction of the members of the institution, the majority of whom are State Superintendents of Public Instruction or Commissioners of Education of all the states; these having been made ex-officio members. The institution holds great promise for the future because (a) of the nature of its organization, (b) of its singleness of purpose, and (c) of the fact that it has money for development of the work and prospects of substantial endowments to finance it in the future.

Generous contributions of an anonymous business man known as "the donor" made it possible for the institution to offer two prizes that have attracted wide attention. A prize of \$5,000 offered for the best children's code of morals stimulated the production of fifty-two codes. The Hutchins' Morality Code, generally known as the prize code, is now extensively used in public schools at home and abroad. A revised edition of this code has very recently been published.

Plans for character education in the public schools were later brought out by the offering of a \$20,000 prize. This prize was awarded to the Iowa plan, produced by a committee of which Dr. Edwin D. Starbuck was chairman. The Iowa plan is now extensively circulated. It also is being revised.

Recently the Character Education Institution has stimulated the appointment of new committees on character education in the various states. Many states now have such committees at work.

Some notable theoretical discussions of the problems of character education have been contributed by individuals. Among these are Professors John Dewey,⁴ Edward O. Sisson,⁵ Charles E. Rugh,⁶ Frank C. Sharp⁷ and Henry Neumann.⁸ Lesson outlines for elementary schools were prepared by Professor Sharp, Dr. Neumann, Mrs. Ella Lyman Cabot, Dr. Fannie Fern Andrews and others. Professor Sharp's book, "Education for Character," one of the most complete discussions now available, was the outcome in part of several years of experimental teaching in the Wisconsin High School, the demonstration school of the University of Wisconsin. In this connection two courses were conducted, the one a character education course through the study of biography, associated with the ninth grade English class; the other, a direct study of the moral life, an eleventh grade course. This course was published as a bulletin of the University of Wisconsin.

Professor Sharp received the benefit of experiments conducted by principals and teachers in Wisconsin public schools who attended his classes in Moral Education in the University Summer Sessions. Through these activities and those of Superintendent Mary D. Bradford and others, Wisconsin made notable contributions to this movement.

Experimental teaching for Character and Citizenship through a senior high school course has been under way in Utah for the past fifteen years. The experiment was first tried in a course with college freshmen in the State University under the title, Ethics of Citizenship. The outline of the course thus developed was later adopted by the state as a senior high school course. It was first published in textbook form in 1917, under the title "Citizenship, An Introduction to Social Ethics."⁹ Since that time it has been in continuous use in senior high school and college freshman classes. The lesson outlines have recently been revised and will be published as a supplement to the text.

Many cities have developed plans of training in Manners and Morals, according to the older titles; Character and Conduct, according to the newer. Among the most recently published is that of Los Angeles, a hundred-page Course of Study Monograph, giving the character education objectives for each subject of the curriculum.

The numerous professional codes for teachers recently developed by state and city school systems have an important bearing upon the general problem of character training. One of the latest and most elaborate is a "Suggested Syllabus in Minimum Es-

sentials for Professional Ethics,"¹⁰ prepared by a committee for the state normal schools of Massachusetts.

The National Council of Education has for some years had a committee on the Teaching of Democracy. This committee, of which Dr. A. Duncan Yocom is chairman, reported a year ago.¹¹

In March, 1921, President Homer H. Seerley, of the Council, appointed a temporary committee to investigate and report on the problem of training for Character and Citizenship. This committee reported at the following July meeting of the Council. The committee was then made a standing committee on Character Education. The same committee was appointed by the National Education Association and has since continued by re-appointment from year to year as a committee of both organizations. It has several times reported progress. These reports include some preliminary recommendations concerning the training of teachers for character education. The committee now consists of twenty-three members scattered from Boston to Berkeley. Its work has recently been carried on by six sub-committees as follows: Objectives, Curriculum Materials, Teaching Procedure, School Organization, Character Scales and Measurements, and Teacher Training. The committee solicits reports of successful work in character education and citizenship training that is being carried on anywhere in the schools.¹² It hopes to have report of substantial progress ready for circulation at the July, 1924, meeting of the National Education Association. The subject is, however, so complex and so significant, that the committee is averse from making a hasty report. To illustrate, the chairman of the sub-committee on "Character Scales and Measurements," Dr. Edwin D. Starbuck, recently mailed letters of inquiry to nearly four hundred institutions and individuals who are working on character scales; his replies give information of many others working on the same problem. Anything like a complete survey of this activity alone involves a vast amount of labor.

The World Conference on Education held in San Francisco, June-July, 1923, provided a section, Group D, on "International Ideals." The work of this group was planned under two closely allied topics—Character Education, and World Peace. This group outlined briefly a "Basic Plan for Character Education" and resolutions concerning "Education for World Peace." These documents were adopted by unanimous vote of the plenary session of the conference, and are now printed in the Proceedings of the Conference, published by the National Education Association. The Character Education Institution, at Washington, D. C., has also published 10,000 copies of the "Basic Plan for Character Education" for circulation in the United States and foreign countries. In this connection it has suggested "the appointment of a special committee of nine persons in each of the other nations of the world, to co-operate with this Institution in working out practical and influential plans for character education of children and youth in the schools of each nation."

The Institute of Social and Religious Research and The American Social Hygiene Association, both of New York City, have made important contributions toward character education in the schools. Many school systems have themselves worked out well defined plans of training for character and citizenship. Among these public school systems are those of Detroit, Omaha, Boston, and New York. Kansas City, Missouri, is trying a plan of co-operation with the churches in religious and moral instruction. This plan is also being tried in many other places.

There have been so many contributions to the problem of character education and training for citizenship that of necessity many such movements are not even mentioned in this brief paper. These

omissions may include some very important contributions.

¹ Paper read before the National Council of Social Studies, February 25, 1924.

² Published by Charles Scribner's Sons.

³ Published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

⁴ Moral Principles in Education, Houghton, Mifflin Co.

⁵ The Essentials of Character, The Macmillan Company.

⁶ Moral Training in the Public Schools, Ginn & Co.

⁷ Education for Character, The Bobbs-Merrill Co.

⁸ Education for Moral Growth, D. Appleton & Co.

⁹ Published by the World Book Company.

¹⁰ Bulletin of the State Department of Education, Boston.

¹¹ Report published by the National Education Association.

¹² Send reports to the Chairman, Character Education Committee, University of Utah, Salt Lake City.

The Twelfth Grade Course in Problems of Democracy.

BY R. O. HUGHES, PEABODY HIGH SCHOOL, PITTSBURGH, PA.,

As far as I know, the first definite proposal for such a course as I am to discuss which received any extensive hearing was that presented by the Committee on Social Studies under the National Education Association, and published in the *History Teachers' Magazine* for January, 1917, and as Bulletin 28, 1916, of the United States Bureau of Education. Their recommendation for the twelfth year, the senior year of the high school or other secondary institution, was a course in Problems of American Democracy—economic, social, and political. Several of our States, notably Pennsylvania and New Jersey, have either legislated or forcefully recommended such a course for each school in the State, though not invariably in the twelfth grade.

The committee which prepared this famous Bulletin 28 made the following assertions: (1) It is impracticable to include in the high school program a comprehensive course in each of the social sciences, and yet it is unjust to the pupil that his knowledge of social facts and laws should be limited to any one of them, however important that one may be. (2) From the standpoint of the purposes of secondary education, it is far less important that the adolescent youth should acquire a comprehensive knowledge of any or all of the social sciences than it is that he should be given experience and practice in the observation of social phenomena as he encounters them; that he should be brought to understand that every social problem is many-sided and complex, and that he should acquire the habit of forming social judgments only on the basis of special consideration of all the facts available.

The Joint Commission on the Presentation of the Social Studies in the Schools has been endeavoring recently to explain our right to exist, by declaring what the subjects we are teaching ought to do for our young people. They make this declaration: "The purpose of the school curriculum is to enable

our youth to realize what it means to live in society, to appreciate how people have lived and do live together, and to understand the conditions essential to living together well; to the end that our youth may develop such abilities, inclinations, and ideals as may qualify them to take an intelligent and effective part in an evolving society."

The Joint Commission goes on to point out the distinctive contributions of history, political science, government, social science, and geography, for every one of these sciences has some contribution to make to virtually every phase of our present life. We cannot pick out specific problems and say: "This one is entirely historical; this one is entirely economic, and this one is wholly political." Least of all can we understand the work of government and the need for it unless we have some comprehension of the social and economic conditions which can be improved by the existence of government. We do not create governments for the purpose of giving jobs to politicians. Governments originate because people find them necessary in order to enable them to satisfy some other need.

The twelfth grade is the proper place for such a course, for then the pupil has had the opportunity to build up by class study in history and other subjects, by reading in current newspapers and magazines, and by personal experience and observation some reasonably satisfactory background for entering upon the work of a course in Problems of Democracy. The high school senior is qualified to take up such a course if any one living is qualified. He has opened his eyes wide enough to discover that this is a big world, and that there are many things in it to be done. He has had experience enough to convince him that everything is not done perfectly, and he has ambition enough to want to get some of these difficulties straightened out. Besides, he has not yet seen enough of the seamy side of things to become too

cynical or to relapse completely into the attitude of "What's the use?" If administrative difficulties make it impossible to put our problems course in the curriculum as a required subject for every one in the twelfth grade, the eleventh grade is not impossible. But every high school graduate should have taken the course before he gets his diploma.

But lest there should be some reader who has not visited a class in Problems of Democracy, or heard anything about the course, let me state briefly what it is. It is an attempt to analyze the chief present-day problems—social, economic, and political; to discover why these problems exist, and to consider means for solving or removing them. We might very properly regard it as a laboratory course in social science. We call upon the various separate social sciences to give us the facts and principles which they have to contribute, and seek to focus them upon the particular conditions and needs of today. How many times have I heard Dr. Barnard say, "In actual life, whether as high school pupils or adults, we face problems and not sciences."

The Problems of Democracy course is not a new course in facts. It is not a skimming of the encyclopedia. It is not a hit-or-miss discussion of current events. At the same time it ought notably to broaden one's fund of information and his sympathy with human needs, and to enable him to interpret the things that go on in the world in which he lives. The thoughtful student of the Problems of Democracy is interested in making his city, his country, and the world a better place to live in. If a pupil sees present needs as *problems*, rather than as mere incidents or by-products of a course in history, I believe he will get a much truer conception of their significance. I fail to see why, in either case, a comprehension of present needs should produce "an army of youthful muck-rakers," as has been asserted. Sometimes seeming differences of method are, after all, only differences in terminology. The greater part of the New York State History Course C, for example, is really a course in the Problems of Democracy. Much depends on whether we think of ourselves as learning a science or getting acquainted with life.

Now, a word as to the organization of the course. I am not sure that there is any such thing as *the* organization, and yet it should be as carefully thought out and planned as any course offered in school. It should be definitely divided, I believe, into units or problems, such as "The functions of the national government," "Finance," "Education," "The distribution of the returns from production," "The promotion of industrial peace." The teacher should have a clear idea in advance of the ground he will try to cover. After one or two experiments he will have little difficulty in determining with considerable accuracy the amount of time his class will need for the various problems which they take up. Naturally, the number of possible problems to study is far greater than the time available for a class. The teacher and the class must select the most important ones. A carefully

chosen list of twelve or fourteen will touch a surprisingly large range of present-day interests and activities. The teacher, and probably the pupils, too, should clearly set up the objectives they hope to attain in their study and the activities by which they will strive to reach them.

I have known of classes in Problems of Democracy which started in the beginning of a textbook and took so many pages a day until they were through. Instructors who followed such a method would probably do the same in history. The wail which we sometimes hear about our not having qualified teachers for Problems of Democracy courses wrings no sympathy from me. A person qualified to be a good teacher in history or government can readily prepare himself to be a good teacher in problems—by making himself a student along with his pupils, if in no other way. The incompetent will do a poor job wherever he is. I am as anxious as any one that we may have thoroughly qualified teachers for the social studies, but the situation is no worse with reference to the Problems of Democracy course than other advanced courses in the social studies.

At the other extreme, I have heard the proposition that the teacher should take some minor problem of local interest, such as the construction of a new sewer or the proposed soldier's bonus; start with that as an appeal to the interest of the class, and then go wherever the trail leads. I very much fear that such a method would lead to no particular place. Under any circumstance, it could hardly conduce to a definite progress of work or thorough and regular study. This criticism, of course, has no bearing upon the plan of taking one definite project as a central core or continuous illustration for the study of a related set of facts and principles.

Current events will often arouse profitable discussion and offer an exceedingly valuable approach to the discussion of a big problem. Indeed, they may lay open the whole problem. But, to my mind, they should be used to illustrate or arouse interest in the problem of the course rather than to be the basis of the course itself. With all the good points which the *Literary Digest* possesses, I do not care to take it as the textbook of the course.

Now, as to the method of the course. Again I should say I doubt the existence of *the* method, except that there should be room in whatever method is followed for special and constant participation in the work by the members of the class themselves. There should be one or more permanent class officers to keep records of the activities of the class, and possibly to assume some general responsibility with reference to the planning of work or conducting of the sessions of the class.

I am going to let Miss Bessie Kann, secretary of one of our classes, tell us in her own words about the experiment we are attempting this semester. I asked her to do this after hearing from her some intelligent and constructive comment about certain features of the tests we have given, which caused me to believe that her opinions about the course as a whole would be of value.

"The plan which we are using in our study of the Problems of American Democracy this semester is a very unusual one, and, in my estimation, an exceptionally good one. The subject is covered by dividing the material contained in it into fourteen problems. A separate committee, made up of students, one of whom acts as chairman, takes charge of each problem. When a problem is taken up in class, the chairman of that committee is in charge the first day, and the other members of the committee take turns leading the recitation. The one in charge asks the questions and calls on the students. Every member of the class is on one of the committees.

"Thus we see the work is done by the *students*. This promotes an interest in the work. Since the chairmen of the various classes who are working on the same problem confer together, and make up the outlines showing the range of material to be covered, and the manner of covering it, these students get a very clear idea of how to use the book and everything else that comes under the scope of their work. Aside from this, it is fine training to ask questions and get practice in conducting a class. Since each one gets at least one turn, he realizes the necessity of having order and attention given him, and is therefore ready to give it to some one else when he is not leading, but listening. In other words, it puts the students 'on their own hook,' which is of inestimable value. The students feel a sense of importance and responsibility in the class, and they are anxious to be worthy of it. They learn to lead and to follow, which is the basis of good citizenship."

By no means would I pretend that the working out of this method invariably results in a high-grade product. The instructor will find it necessary to keep careful watch of the outlines and programs prepared by some committees, or else they may go far away from their proper sphere or, on the other hand, omit points of vital importance. Yet by some committees the work has been well handled, and, as Miss Kann points out, there is a feeling of responsibility on the part of the class itself for the success of the course, which surely would not exist if the teacher did all the planning.

I am inclined to the view that one basic textbook for the course is desirable, in order to furnish a common understanding as to the amount of facts and principles which every member of the class can fairly be expected to absorb. Unless there is some definite assignment for study, two-thirds of the class will do very little studying. That is human nature, and no fad or theory can get away from it. And if this study is to be effective, there must be some sort of recitation depending on it. Supervised study or directed learning, as commonly conducted, can never take the place of solid recitation, report, and discussion based on some sort of prepared work. Some teachers have found it satisfactory to have in a class of twenty-five or thirty several copies of four or five different textbooks.

Where library facilities are available, constant use of references for special topics should take place.

We also require the keeping of a notebook, in which outlines, charts, diagrams, summaries are to be placed, and which also is expected to include pictures, clippings, and all sorts of other illustrative material. We never follow exactly the same order of procedure in two successive terms. Thus we reduce to a minimum the likelihood of copying notebooks of previous classes. Every pupil must write reviews based on two forms of outside reading, one of a high-class monthly magazine or its equivalent and one of a book relating to some problem studied during the semester. Important features of the term's work also are maps of the city, county, and State. The biggest single undertaking is a document which we call a thesis. It is supposed to represent extensive reading, observation, and investigation in some subject of interest to the individual. Naturally, the theses range in merit all the way from mere copying of reference books to productions that really show evidence of research and intelligent enterprise of a high order.

I have found little possibility of introducing the sort of "directed learning" or any of the various fads just now cultivated by some educators. If a high school senior must do all his studying in the classroom in order to get anything accomplished, there is little to hope from him when he is thrown on his own resources after he gets his diploma. Class discussions are often exceedingly fruitful in bringing out additional information and suggesting new points of view. The social studies should be studied socially in the real sense of the word. I see no place in this course for the proposition that sets every individual working by himself and lets him go at his own speed, or for the other present fad of putting the budding geniuses in one class and the dumb-bells in another. The grown-up citizen is going to meet all sorts of persons. In a *social* study, to say the least, he ought to meet them in the classroom. Certainly, if a pupil has displayed the brains and enterprise necessary to get as far as the senior year in the high school, he is, in all probability, neither too good nor too poor to be allowed to associate with any of his fellow-seniors in studying the Problems of Democracy.

It is sometimes charged that a course in civics or problems is considered a *catch*, and that all the honest work has been taken out of the social studies courses. Let me make clear my conviction that the mere requirement of two or three hours' preparation a day for a single class is not an evidence of value in a course, nor is the handing in of long lists of failures proof of good teaching. At the same time I am sure that the amount of time spent by the average pupil on his Problems course would vary little from that demanded by other required subjects of similar grade. Investigation of the marks given on reports in our school shows that, without any prior consultation, the teachers of other subjects gave grades which, when averaged, showed a surprisingly similar trend to those given in our course in Problems of Democracy.

I believe we can profitably pass some judgment on the merits of a course after learning the pupils'

opinion of it. It is a required subject for our graduating pupils. Recently I asked members of my classes to express their opinions with reference to the course, specifying particularly its general value, its interest, and its difficulty, as compared with other courses which they were taking or had taken. I know very well that some pupils will try to say the thing that they think you want them to say, but I tried to make clear that in this case nobody need expect to have his mark raised by being enthusiastic over the course. Besides, I asked every pupil to suggest improvements which, in his opinion, would make the work more successful and profitable.

From the responses which were handed in the following statements of opinion were gathered: With reference to the general value of the course, out of nearly 150 pupils who expressed opinions, 147 put it first or very high among all the subjects they had taken, and 12 ranked it fair. From the standpoint of interest, 104 ranked it highest or very high, 41 fair, and 4 low. From the standpoint of difficulty, 10 classified the course high, 119 fair, and 16 easy. Since I received 33 specific suggestions for improvement, I believe I am justified in concluding that many of the pupils tried to be critical and not merely complimentary. From such impressions it seems to me that we can justly conclude that the course is decidedly worth while.

In their varied functions of testing accomplishments and keeping pupils up to some standard of activity, there must be quizzes or examinations. Otherwise there would be too much temptation to the boy who does read more or less widely to ask fluent questions and to be satisfied with that and nothing more. I am rather thoroughly sold on the idea of making most of the tests we give exceedingly definite in character. Completion questions, multiple choice, true-false questions, with occasional examples of the older type, offer a range and variety in the making of tests which the old "essay" type alone could not afford. It takes somewhat longer to prepare these, but, once prepared, a good many questions can be used repeatedly. They cover a far wider amount of territory than the old-style questions could possibly do. Best of all, the pupil is under no illusion as to the correctness of his answers. With very few exceptions, they are either right or wrong, and no argument is possible.

We have worked out a system of points which assigns a certain maximum number of credits for each feature of the term's work. Then, when reports are called for, 900 or over means *A*; 800, *B*, and so on. If a percentage system of marking is used, the points could readily be transformed into percentages.

In these days of tests and measurements we are asked to be able to show mathematically what our pupils have acquired during the time they spend with us. A committee on college entrance examinations, reporting a year or so ago, declined to recommend a college entrance examination in what they called civics, giving as one of their reasons that there was no prescribed content. What a pity that these learned

ladies and gentlemen must standardize all the knowledge and understanding that pupils accumulate before they will permit the giving of any credit for what they have acquired! Does the passing of an examination on a specified amount of Cæsar or algebra measure good citizenship?

Pupils feel that their course in Problems of Democracy is one of the most valuable which they take in high school, and that in spite of the fact that it is required of all pupils. Besides, teachers of the subject, almost without exception, are positive about its worth, and question only the way to get the best results for the time spent.

We are dealing in this course with somewhat intangible things. We can reduce to figures or letters a partial estimate of the amount of knowledge or skill that they have acquired, but the finer things, the ideals of patriotism and social service, the sympathy with all classes and conditions of men and nations, the understanding of ways to co-operate, or at least get along with other people—you can no more measure these in a written test than you measure a man's religion, and these are some of the things which cannot fail to be developed by our courses in Problems of Democracy. We need not worry about their ultimate value if they are well planned and efficiently administered.

Certainly, the best formal study of various social sciences has not produced an ideal society. I am one of those who are delighted to have the chance to try a new and varied attack on the problems of everyday life. We believe we are on the right track when we seek to understand the Problems of Democracy, rather than when we try only to master certain social sciences.

CLARK UNIVERSITY SUMMER SCHOOL

WORCESTER, MASS.

July 7-August 15, 1924

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Ralph Volney Harlow, Ph. D.
Assistant Professor of History, Boston University
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The New Jersey Course in the Social Studies

Report of the Committee on Social Science of the
New Jersey Association of Teachers of Social Science

As Made to the State Secondary School Conference, Rutgers College, New Brunswick,
November, 1923.

PRELIMINARY STATEMENT.

At the request of the State Department of Education, the President of the New Jersey Association of Teachers of Social Studies, Mr. S. B. Howe, Head of the Department of Social Science, South Side High School, Newark, appointed a committee, consisting of representative teachers in this work from the State of New Jersey, including among others, Henry W. Elson, the historian, and consultants such as Dr. Edgar Dawson, Dr. D. C. Knowlton, to prepare a syllabus of courses in social science for junior and senior high schools. After working for a year, this committee reported in November at the annual secondary school conference held at Rutgers College, the general recommendations hereafter set forth. These recommendations were unanimously approved by the New Jersey Association of Teachers of Social Science, the committee was given a vote of confidence, and directed in the name of the association to continue its work and present its final findings to the State Department of Education as the recommendation of the association.

SYNOPSIS OF PROPOSED COURSE OF STUDY FOR THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL GRADES—GRADES SEVEN, EIGHT AND NINE.

I. Transition to Junior High School Grades.

A. Fifth grade history: Story of United States History.

It is suggested that this course be regarded primarily as a reading course in United States history covering the story of the rise and growth of the American people to the present, that the reading shall be largely in the field of biography, but that such biographical reading shall be carefully correlated and integrated with the problems, projects, movements, events, scenes, and institutions that have made America what she is.

Pupils of this grade should not be expected to master the facts of a textbook, and the course should not be looked upon as a cold, formal and chronological study of our history. The course should be regarded as a story full of human interest and action, and pupils should be taught to associate great names with great movements, great problems and great institutions.

B. Sixth grade history: Our Old World Background.

Here, again, this course should be presented fundamentally as a reading course, being based largely upon the idea that the material read shall be mostly of a biographical and romantic nature.

The Greeks, the Romans, the Anglo-Saxons, and the Teutons would not be regarded as Greeks, as Romans, as Anglo-Saxons, and as Teutons, but as actual *builders of civilization* —a civilization freighted with gallantry, courtesy, heroism, bravery, and great and fascinating ideals as well as with political principles and social institutions.

Another central idea that would be kept in mind is that there is no *set* European background of American history. The story of Europe's influence upon and connection with America is not merely a story that ended in time years and years ago. From the beginning of our history Europe influenced America. Europe ever since has been influencing America. Europe will influence America as long as time shall last. There is no *set* European background of American history. Points of contact between European and American Civilizations must constantly be pointed out or the course will fail in its main purpose.

This point should also be stressed. When the story of our Old World background of American history reaches the period when European countries colonized in America, enough attention should be given to European colonization in this country so that when the work in history for the seventh grade begins but very little time need be given to the study of that topic. Seventh grade United States history may begin with a review of the periods of discovery, exploration, settlement, and inter-colonial wars, or it may begin with the immediate background of the American Revolution if the teacher finds that the previous periods have been sufficiently studied. In either case it is understood that emphasis shall have been placed on "forms of colonial government, especially in New Jersey." "The colonies in America achieve their independence."

This course would be to a large extent a simple, but rather complete survey of the culture of the modern age as it has come to us through or out of the past.

II. Synopsis of course of study for the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades.

A. Seventh grade.

1. United States history from the end of the period of colonization to the present time.

Note.—This course assumes that the

time spent on it shall be not less than five forty-five minute periods per week throughout a school year of not less than 185 school days.

2. Or United States history—through the Reconstruction Period.

B. Eighth grade.

1. Community civics throughout the year, this will necessitate a change in the State law.

Time.—Five forty-five minute periods per week for a school year of not less than 185 days.

2. Or one-half year (first half) of United States history—our history from Reconstruction to the present, and for the second half of this year community civics.

3. Or community civics for one-half year and world-review of geography for the other half of the year, if United States history has been completed at the end of the seventh grade.

Note.—In either arrangement, United States history should receive consideration for not less than five forty-five minute periods per week throughout a school year of not less than 185 days.

C. Ninth grade.

- If one-half year of community civics only is given during the eighth grade, community civics should be completed during the first half of the ninth grade, the topic being that of governmental and vocational civics or governmental and economic civics. Time being five forty-five minute periods per week.
- If community civics is taught for one-half year during the ninth grade, early European history may be taught during the last half of this year and brought down to 1660. If this arrangement is accepted, then European history should be completed during the tenth grade, it being understood that it shall be taught during the whole of the tenth grade year.
- If community civics has been given a full year in the eighth grade no unit of social science is required in first half of ninth year.
- Those schools which have completed civics in the eighth grade, and which desire to give a full year to the unit Early European history in the ninth grade, may do so, using the outline prepared for the State of New Jersey by Mr. S. B. Howe.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR GRADES TEN, ELEVEN,
TWELVE.

Grade ten.

For those schools which have completed one term of Early European history in the ninth grade, or during the entire ninth grade.

Modern European history: using the outline prepared by Dr. D. C. Knowlton.

For schools which have given no European history in the ninth grade:

World Civilization.

The topical outline of this year's course follows:

TOPICAL OUTLINE OF COURSE IN HISTORY OF
WORLD CIVILIZATION.

Part I.	I. Rise of Civilization.
	Sec. I. Beginnings in Eastern Mediterranean Basin.
Part II.	II. Advance in Civilization in Western Lands.
	Sec. II. Rome.
Part III.	III. Transition from Ancient to Modern Times.
	Sec. III. Middle Ages (to 1500).
Part IV.	IV. Modern Times.
	Sec. IV. Development of Constitutional Government in England (12th, 13th, 14th cent.).
	Sec. V. Renaissance (14th, 15th cent.).
	Sec. VI. A Century of Religious Wars (1520-1648).
	Sec. VII. Rise of National States (by 1650).
	Sec. VIII. Age of Autocracy (16th, 17th, 18th cent.).
	Sec. IX. Growth of Trade (16th, 17th, 18th cent.).
	Sec. X. Steps Leading Toward Modern Democracy.
	A. Revolutions in England.
	B. Industrial Revolution.
	C. French Revolution.
	Sec. XI. Growth of Modern Democracy (1815-1914). In France, Great Britain, Italy, Germany, Austria, United States, Russia, Near East.
	Sec. XII. European Expansion and Influence in Asia and Africa, 1840-1914.
	Sec. XIII. World War.
	Sec. XIV. Autocracy Falls in Russia.
	Sec. XV. World Problems Today.

For the eleventh grade the committee recommends American history, using the outline prepared by Miss Sarah A. Dynes, of the Trenton Normal School for the State of New Jersey, with such additions as will bring it down to date.

For the twelfth year the committee recommends two term units:

- (1) Economics;
- (2) Problems of American Democracy.

These may be taken up in the order desired by the respective schools.

In closing it may be said that this course of study was prepared to carry out the recommendations of a committee of school administrators of New Jersey to the effect that the standard high school course in this state should contain one constant unit of social science in each secondary school year, and that the State Department is solidly behind this program and will assist in procuring such legislation as may be

required to make this course of study available for every high school in the State.

Respectfully submitted,

S. B. HOWE,
Chairman Syllabus Committee.

TWELFTH GRADE ECONOMICS.

The syllabus for the following course was prepared by a sub-committee, of which R. R. Ammarell, of the Barringer High School, Newark, was chairman.

- I. Economics as a Social Science.
- II. Survey of Economic Conditions before the Industrial Revolution.
 1. Manorial system and its breakup.
 2. Guilds.
 3. Handicraft system.
 4. Domestic system.
 5. Mercantile theory.
- III. Industrial Revolution.
 1. Causes.
 2. Effects—not only economic, but social and political as well.
 3. *Laissez-faire* of Adam Smith.
- IV. Consumption.
 1. Necessary and unnecessary.
 2. Varied consumption.
 3. Diminishing utility.
 4. Engel's law and its relation to modern life.
- V. Production.
 1. Types.
 - a. Extractive industries.
 - b. Manufacturing industries.
 - c. Commercial industries, including transportation.
 2. Kinds of utilities.
 - a. Natural.
 - b. Form.
 - c. Place.
 - d. Time.
 - e. Possession.
 3. Factors.
 - a. Land.
 - b. Labor.
 - (1) Supply—Malthusian Theory.
 - (2) Efficiency.
 - (3) Division of labor.
 - c. Capital.
 - (1) How formed.
 - (2) How maintained.
 - (3) Small and large scale production.
 - d. Management.
 4. Law of diminishing utility.
 5. Organization of Production for Business Purposes.
 - a. Individual—characteristics.
 - b. Partnership.
 - (1) Formation.
 - (2) Types.
 - (3) Advantages and disadvantages.
 - c. Corporation.
 - (1) How formed.
 - (2) Characteristics.
 - (3) Concentrated control.
 - d. Concentration and Integration of Industry.
 - (1) Gentlemen's agreement.
 - (2) Pool.
 - (3) Trust.
 - (4) Holding company.
 - (5) Exchange of property for stock.
 - e. Purpose of Concentration and Integration of Industry.
 - (1) Secure advantages of large scale production.
 - (2) Monopoly profits.
 - (3) Promoters' profits.

f. Regulation of Business Enterprise.

- (1) Private enterprise.
 - (a) Sherman Act, 1890.
 - (b) Clayton Act, 1914.
 - (c) Federal Trade Commission Act, 1914.
 - (d) Webb Export Trade Act, 1918.
 - (e) Co-operative Marketing Act, 1922.
- (2) Public.
 - (a) State—Utility Commissions.
 - (b) National Acts regulating inter-state commerce since 1887.

VI. Exchange.

1. Advantages.
2. Value.
 - a. Subjective and objective.
 - b. Market value and how determined.
 - c. Monopoly value.
3. Money as a Factor in Exchange.
 - a. Origin.
 - b. Characteristics.
 - c. Uses.
 - d. Fluctuation of value—inflation and contraction.
 - (1) Index number.
 - (2) Stabilizing the dollar.
 - e. Relation of government to money.
4. Banks and Banking.
 - a. Origin of banking.
 - b. Banking history of the United States.
 - (1) Bank of the United States, 1791-1811; 1816-1836.
 - (2) State Banks.
 - (3) National Banking System.
 - (4) Federal Reserve Act.
 - (5) Farm Loan Banks.
 5. International Trade.
 - a. Purpose.
 - b. Agencies to carry it on.
 - c. Restrictions.
 - (1) Kinds of restrictions.
 - (2) Tariffs.
 - (a) Protection.
 - (b) Revenue.
 - (c) Free Trade.

VII. Distribution.

1. Meaning of Distribution.
2. Shares of Distribution.
3. Distribution Theories.
 - a. Productivity theory.
 - b. Monopoly theory.
4. Theory of Rent.
 - a. Meaning of rent.
 - b. How rent arises.
 - c. How rent is paid.
 - d. Rent of various grades of land.
5. Theory of Interest.
 - a. Why interest is paid.
 - b. Source of the interest fund.
 - c. Determination of the interest rate.
6. Theory of Wages.
 - a. Real wages versus money wages.
 - b. Groups of wage earners—competing and non-competing.
 - c. Determination of the wage—Iron Law of Wages.
7. Theory of Profits.
 - a. Meaning of profits.
 - b. Kinds of profits.
 - c. How profits arise.

VIII. Programs of Nationalization.

1. Single Tax.
 - a. Purpose.
 - b. Arguments for and against.
2. Socialism.
 - a. History of socialism.
 - b. Socialism in the United States.
 - (1) Relation to production.
 - (2) Relation to distribution.
 - c. Arguments for and against.

Outline of Course in Problems of American Democracy

Prepared by a Sub-Committee of the New Jersey Association of Teachers of Social Science, R. R. Ammarell, Barringer High School, Newark, Chairman

THE COURSE.

A. The Meaning of Democracy.

B. The Fundamental Principles of Democracy.

1. Spirit of obedience to law.
2. Spirit of justice.
3. Spirit of equity between
 - a. Individuals.
 - b. Individuals and communities.
 - c. Communities and nations.
 - d. Nations and nations.
4. Spirit of respect for leaders.
5. Spirit of co-operation or mutual helpfulness.
6. Spirit of confidence in one's fellows.
7. Spirit of service.

The following principles should be stressed and illustrated:

The democratic principle is that every responsible individual unit contributes, but only collectively controls.

The right of representation belongs only to those competent to discharge the obligation assumed. It is not a vested right of citizenship.

Government is a means, and not an end. It is the agency through which the principles of democracy may be applied to the management of public business.

C. Forms of Government.

1. Monarchy.
2. Oligarchy.
3. Democracy.

D. Our Civilization is Chiefly Anglo-Saxon in Origin.

1. The Magna Charta, 1215—six leading provisions.
 - a. Swift and impartial justice.
 - b. Punishment according to the offense committed.
 - c. Taxation according to the wishes of representatives of the people.
 - d. Trial by jury.
 - e. Habeas corpus.
 - f. Local self-government.
2. Petition of Right, 1628.
 - a. Declared anew formally the ancient rights of Englishmen, and
 - b. Enriched their civil liberties in two particulars:
 - (1) Forbade the quartering of troops upon private citizens.
 - (2) Put an end to the trial of private citizens by military courts.
3. The Bill of Rights, 1689.
 - a. This declaration was the second document produced by the conflict between the Stuarts and the people, and is a document which has been called "the third great charter of English liberty and the coping-stone of the constitutional building." It has seven main declarations:
 - (1) Laws shall not be suspended or repealed, and taxes shall not be levied without consent of Parliament.
 - (2) The right of petition shall not be denied.
 - (3) A standing army shall not be kept in time of peace.
 - (4) Subjects shall not be deprived of the right to carry arms.
 - (5) Freedom of speech and debate in Parliament shall not be impeached or questioned in any place outside of Parliament.
 - (6) Excessive bail ought not to be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel or unusual punishment inflicted.

(7) Parliament ought to assemble frequently.

E. The Transference of English Representative Institutions to America.

1. The Virginia Assembly, 1619. The first representative assembly in America.
2. The Mayflower Compact, 1620.
 - a. The compact did not provide a form of government, but only pledged its signers to obey the government.
 - b. This was the first instance of complete self-government in our history, for the assembly at Jamestown in 1619 was called together by orders from the Virginia Company in England.
3. The New England Confederation, 1643. Theoretically a league of four equal states.
4. The Albany Congress, 1754. Proposed.
 - a. Annual meeting.
 - b. Maintain colonial army.
 - c. Control public lands.
 - d. Pass laws affecting the public good.
 - e. Levy taxes for common undertakings.
5. The Declaration of Independence, 1776.
 - a. The Republic dates its beginnings from 1776, the Declaration of Independence forming the chief corner-stone of the foundation. In that are enunciated the following principles of democracy:
 - a. That all men are created equal.
 - b. That governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed.
 - c. That for good reason the people may abolish the old form of government and institute a new form.
6. The Constitution of the United States, 1787.
 1. "We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquility, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America."

(The Preamble should be committed to memory.)

G. The State Constitution of New Jersey, 1844, 1875, 1897.

1. Preamble—See text. Legislative Manual.
2. Article I. Rights and Privileges. Compare these with the amendments to the Federal Constitution referred to above.

It should be clearly understood:

- a. That in America individual liberty and the right to a livelihood are not only derived from the Constitution, but that individuals who were in possession of civil liberty and the right to a livelihood originally framed a government for the protection of both.
- b. That civil liberty, equality of economic opportunity, equality before the law, the right to hold and dispose of the just gains of one's labor or skill are fundamental American rights, and constitute the foundation of our whole political and social system.
- c. That American democracy differs from every other form of democracy that the world has seen, in that the sovereign people, in framing the Federal Constitution, reserved to themselves all rights not specifically delegated to their government; and

d. That they set up courts of justice to protect the humblest individual and citizen from invasion of his privileges and rights, even by the government itself.

H. A Summary of American Ideals.
 "A subtle matter this, for it is not a question of just what we have been, nor yet of just what we have done. It is a question rather of what, in our more earnest moments, we have honestly imagined ourselves to be, or perhaps, better still, of what we have believed that we should strive for."—*New York State Syllabus in History*.

1. Liberty and independence; freedom from submission to any outside power; no entangling alliances.
2. Extension of the arbitration idea among the nations of the earth, with a view toward the formation of an international union for the preservation of peace and the ideal of nationality.
3. Government by public opinion; the rule of the majority; universal citizen suffrage; the secret ballot in all elections; honesty and fair play in politics.
4. Such a division of powers between the Federal Government, on the one hand and the several States on the other, as to leave each sovereign in its particular field, thus cultivating a double patriotism; loyalty and patriotism as the corner-stones of our Republic.
5. A government of checks and balances; divisions of the powers of the government into three co-ordinate branches—law-making, law-judging, and law-enforcing; efficiency and honesty in government through the fixing of official responsibility; distribution of powers to manage local affairs among the subordinate local units.
6. Recognition of the institution of property, but that all property should bear its just share of the expenses of government.
7. Conservation of all national resources, both of man power and of natural goods, to the end that the greatest good to the greatest number may be attained.
8. General recognition and application of the principle that the safety and perpetuity of our democracy rests upon the education of all its citizens.
9. The right of every individual to his own religious opinions and beliefs; the separation of church and state.

PRIVATE PROPERTY.

A. Right of Private Property.

1. Definition.
 - a. "Private property is the right and interest which a person has in land and chattels to the exclusion of others."
 - b. "Private property is the exclusive right of possessing, enjoying, and disposing of a thing."
2. Theories concerning private property.
 - a. Occupation or possession theory. That which belongs to no one becomes the property of him who takes or seizes it. Possession is nine points of the law.
 - b. Labor theory. This consists of presupposed occupancy, which applies to only a few kinds of property. According to Mill, property was what one produced by one's own exertions, or acquired or purchased from some one who had produced it by his own exertions.
 - c. Natural rights or freedom theory. Property is the external sphere of liberty, and is therefore a natural right. Man must have a domain in which he can act as master; otherwise he is a slave.
 - d. General welfare theory. Property exists because it promotes the general welfare, and by the general welfare its development is directed.
3. Advantages of private property.
 - a. Its owner has a greater amount of independence.
 - b. Its guarantees against degeneration in the social scale.
 - c. It makes for more honest government.
 - d. It leads to a fuller utilization of natural resources.

- e. It furnishes incentives for invention and improvement of industrial processes.
- f. It establishes the ideals of thrift and economy.

B. Status of Private Property in the United States.

1. Constitutional provisions.
 - a. No taking of private property without due process of law.
 - b. No impairment of the obligation of contracts.
2. Reasons why these provisions have not been amended.
 - a. Effects of the land policy.
 - b. Influence of Supreme Court decisions: Dartmouth College case.
 - c. Influence of the Fourteenth Amendment: corporations as persons.
 - d. Influence of the provisions of the Constitution concerning amendment.
 - e. Influence of public opinion.

C. Qualifications of the Right of Private Property in the United States.

1. Eminent domain.
2. Extension of public property.
 - a. Public parks and playgrounds.
 - b. Conservation movement—forests, water power, etc.
 - c. Government ownership of natural monopolies.
3. Taxation.

D. Attacks Upon the Institution of Private Property.

1. Some people still accept idea that private property is due to violence and robbery.
2. Socialism regards private property as unjust.
3. Militant socialism:
 - a. Industrial Workers of the World.
 - b. Bolshevism.
4. Single tax and the unearned increment of land.

E. Weaknesses of the above attacks.

CAPITAL AND LABOR.

A. Nature of Modern Industry.

1. Industry a joint venture.
 - a. Capital invests substance, dollars, brain power.
 - b. Labor invests skill, life, brain power.
 - c. Public makes possible returns on these investments.
2. Control of industry.
 - a. Capitalistic control.
 - b. Labor's objections.
 - c. Policy of non-interference by the public.

B. The Conflict Between Labor and Capital.

1. Relation of employer and employee before the Industrial Revolution.
2. Strained relations after the Industrial Revolution.
 - a. Division of labor.
 - b. Separation of worker from ownership of tools.
 - c. Common interests led to trade unions.
 - d. Wage system.
 - e. Class consciousness.

C. Present Situation.

1. What labor wants.
 - a. Right to organize.
 - b. Collective bargaining through representatives of its own choosing.
 - c. Greater share in the profits.
 - d. Voice in the management.
 - e. Eight-hour day.
 - f. Satisfactory living and working conditions.
2. What capital wants.
 - a. A minority wants to manage industry to suit itself.
 - b. Some employers want collective bargaining with representatives in their employ.
 - c. Shop union in preference to regular trade union.
 - d. Share management and profits with labor.
3. The public wants continuous production.

D. Weapons Used by Capital and Labor.

1. Labor.
 - a. Organization.
 - b. Strike.
 - c. Picketing.
 - d. Boycott—primary and secondary.
 - e. Closed shop.

- f. Sabotage—"Direct Action" advocated by I. W. W.
- 2. Capital.
 - a. Organization.
 - b. Lockout.
 - c. Blacklist.
 - d. Open shop.
 - e. Injunction—may be used by labor as well as capital.
- E. Agencies Making for Industrial Peace.
 - 1. Profit-sharing.
 - 2. Permitting labor to share in the management of industry.
 - 3. Welfare work.
 - 4. Mediation.
 - 5. Arbitration—compulsory and voluntary.

TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION.

- A. Water.
 - 1. Inland commerce in early days.
 - 2. Influence of the inventions of the Renaissance period upon navigation.
 - 3. Artificial waterways in the United States.
 - a. Canal construction during first half of nineteenth century.
 - (1) Connected seaboard with interior, reduced freight rates, cemented divergent elements of our national life.
 - (2) Connected seaport with coal mines.
 - (3) Morris Canal and Delaware and Raritan Canals in New Jersey.
 - b. Panama Canal.
 - (1) Its construction.
 - (2) Importance in shortening distances.
 - c. Internal waterways and the future.
 - (1) Plans to link Chicago with Mississippi.
 - (2) Interior waterway along Atlantic coast.
 - (3) High cost of land transportation causes renewed interest in canal construction.
 - 4. The United States as a factor in shipping and ship building.
 - a. Conditions during colonial days and down to the War of 1812.
 - b. Revival of shipping and ship building between 1812 and 1860.
 - c. After Civil War foreign ships carry large percentage of our commerce.
 - d. The World War and revival of ship building and the American Merchant Marine.
 - e. Subsidies.
 - (1) Attitude of European nations.
 - (2) Policy of the United States.
 - B. Land.
 - 1. Roads.
 - a. Persian and Roman roads—why built, in what way?
 - b. Influence of Telford and Macadam.
 - c. Automobile necessitates improved road construction.
 - d. State highways.
 - e. Federal Road Act of 1916.
 - 2. Railroads.
 - a. Remarkable development since 1830.
 - b. Effects of inventions upon growth—locomotives, rails, safety appliances.
 - c. Regulation.
 - (1) Public character of railroad.
 - (2) State regulation through Granger Laws.
 - (3) National regulation 1887 to 1917.
 - (4) Government operation during war.
 - (5) Regulation since March, 1920.
 - d. Railroad problems.
 - (1) Government ownership versus private ownership.
 - (2) Labor.
 - (3) Financing.
 - (4) Rates.
 - 3. Automobile.
 - C. Air.

- 1. Telegraph and telephone.
- 2. Aeroplane.
- 3. Radio.

EDUCATION.

- A. Historical Survey.
 - 1. Illiteracy of former days.
 - 2. The first American schools.
 - 3. Establishment of free public schools.
 - a. Need.
 - (1) Universal education guaranteed.
 - (2) Educational opportunities equalized.
 - b. Service.
 - (1) Americanization.
 - (2) Inculcation of ideals of democracy.
 - c. Purpose.
 - (1) Economic.
 - (2) Personal.
 - (3) Social.
 - B. Control and Management of Public Education.
 - 1. Local.
 - a. Establishment of schools.
 - b. Direct control.
 - c. Greater portion of financial assistance.
 - 2. State.
 - a. Enforcement of compulsory education.
 - b. Supervision of schools.
 - c. Financial assistance.
 - 3. Federal.
 - a. Smith-Hughes Bill.
 - b. Towner-Sterling Bill.
 - c. Bulletins.
 - 4. Rearrangement of the school division.
 - a. Present school plan.
 - b. Junior High School system.
 - c. Junior College.
 - 5. Wider use of schools.
 - a. Neighborhood center.
 - b. Night schools.
 - c. Vacation schools.
 - d. Continuation schools.
 - C. Curriculum.
 - 1. Old.
 - a. Classical.
 - b. Intellectual.
 - 2. New.
 - a. Literary.
 - b. Intellectual and cultural.
 - c. Emphasis on vocational.
 - D. More Recent Methods of Instruction.
 - 1. Elective system.
 - 2. Socialized recitation.
 - 3. Extensive use of the library.
 - E. Financing the Schools.
 - 1. Taxation.
 - a. Amount involved in our educational system (\$2,000,000).
 - b. Yearly upkeep (\$1,000,000).
 - 2. Conclusion: The American public schools, while far from perfect, are rendering a wonderful service. We should spare no pains to make this service constantly more efficient, and should be willing to support generously the schools and any other facilities that will help to make every American citizen intelligent.

CONSERVATION.

- A. Definition.
- B. Importance—Success depends upon: Education, legislation, co-operation.
- C. Conservation of Natural Resources.
 - Leaders of movement include Roosevelt, Gifford Pinchot, Charles Van Hise.
- D. Different Types of Natural Resources.
 - 1. Forests. Can be exhausted, but in time renewed.
 - a. Originally about 45 per cent. of total area of our country was covered with forest.
 - b. Now a little over one-quarter of our total area is forest land.

c. Wastes.

- (1) Carelessness in cutting, only best trees selected.
- (2) To clear land, timber was burned.
- (3) No general provisions in reforestation until recently. We cut timber three times as fast as it grows.
- (4) Great loss in milling lumber—almost half entire volume of logs is lost.
- (5) Injury of pine trees in obtaining tar, pitch, and turpentine.
- (6) Decay, disease, and ravages of insects—gypsy moth is one of most destructive pests.
- (7) Forest fires cause greatest loss. United States leads all the world, with 30,000 annually. Loss every year from 1915-1920 approximated 9,000,000 acres.

d. Legislation.

- (1) Congress passed law in 1891. President can set aside public forest lands as reservations. There are now (1920) about 176,000,000 acres contained in reservations.
- (2) Bureau of Forestry established in 1897 to promote wise use of forest resources and their preservation.
- Work of forest rangers.
- Use of wireless and aeroplane.
- (3) Individual States.
Have forest preserves.
Co-operate with Federal Government.
Work of Conservation Commission.
State Colleges of Forestry.

2. Land.

- a. Generous policy of our Government.
- (1) Gave land to Revolutionary soldiers.
- (2) To States for support of education.
- (3) To corporations for transcontinental railroads.
- (4) Sold great tracts at \$1.25 an acre.
- b. Homestead Act of 1862.
Its provisions and abuse.
- c. Act of 1785 provided for surveying of Western lands.
- d. Necessity of conservation.
- (1) Land policy adopted for quick settlement and rapid economic development rather than for the future welfare of the United States.
- (2) Soil less fertile than formerly.
- (3) Extensive rather than intensive cultivation.
- e. Work of Government.
- (1) General Land Office, Department of the Interior.
- (2) State Agricultural Colleges and Experimental Stations.
- f. Irrigation and reclamation.
- (1) Irrigation law adopted in 1902.
(a) Practically self-supporting.
(b) Much desert land reclaimed in the West.
- (2) Reclamation Service of Interior Department.
(a) Over 3,200,000 acres of formerly arid lands now under cultivation.
(b) Swamp lands to be reclaimed by drainage—about 77,000,000 acres are recoverable.
Importance of change from disease-breeding swamp to productive meadows.
(3) Many private enterprises carry on the work.

3. Water. Inexhaustible type—renews itself.

- a. Closely linked with forest conservation.
- b. Essential to life, health, and cleanliness.
- c. Industrial necessity.
- (1) Power—one-seventh of water power of our country controlled by Government.
- (2) Transportation.
- (3) Irrigation.
- d. City water systems.
- e. Value of water power increasing as fuel supply diminishes.

f. Federal Water Power Board—Secretaries of Treasury, Interior, Agriculture.

g. Benefits of a wise use of our water supply.

- (1) Reduce freight rates.
- (2) Relieve railroad congestion.
- (3) Reduce flood damage and soil erosion.
- (4) Reclaim flooded and swamp lands and irrigate deserts.
- (5) Increase available power.
- (6) Save fuel.

4. Coal—Exhaustible type cannot be renewed by man.

- a. Most important mineral product.
- b. About one-tenth of entire supply has been used.
- c. Great waste in mining before 1883—from one-half to one and one-half tons wasted for every ton mined.
- d. With care in mining and use of coal, supply will last a long time.
- e. Causes of waste.
- (1) Taken only from broad veins, much left.
- (2) Thousands of tons of "slack" thrown away.
- (3) Tons go up chimney in smoke.
- (4) Ignorance.
- f. Remedies.
- (1) Bureau of Mines—study of safe and economical methods.
- (2) Department of mines in many States.
- g. Ownership of coal lands.
- Individual versus Government ownership.

5. Petroleum.

- a. Location of oil fields.
California has more than any other State.
Texas and Oklahoma produce large quantities.
Production from older fields of Pennsylvania, New York, and West Virginia has greatly fallen off.
- b. Use.
Chiefly for power.
- c. Need for conservation.
- d. Suggested remedies.
- (1) Greater care in preventing fires.
- (2) Less exporting.
- (3) Government lease oil lands and not sell them.

E. Conservation of life and health.

Upon the health and intelligence of women and children depends in a peculiar sense the future welfare of our country.

1. Child Labor.
- a. Extent.
More than 2,000,000 children between 10 and 15 years of age engaged in gainful occupations.
- b. How employed?
In factories, mines, quarries, mills, shops, now restricted by law.
In agriculture, domestic service, street trades, stores, messengers, home-work practically unrestricted by law.
- c. Causes.
- (1) Poverty.
- (2) Types of work easily performed by children because of mechanical devices.
- (3) Inadequate enforcement of school attendance laws.
- (4) Indifference of Public.
- d. Effects.
- (1) Health-body poorly developed and stunted.
- (2) Child labor not cheap in end.
(a) Accidents more numerous.
(b) More goods damaged.
- (3) Education neglected.
- (4) Reduces general average of wages.
- (5) Lack of moral influence of home.
- (6) Poor preparation for citizenship.
- e. Child Labor Laws.
- (1) National.

(a) 1916 Keating-Owen bill forbade transportation between the states of products of child labor. Declared unconstitutional by Supreme Court in 1918 as an invasion of federal power in the control of a matter purely local.
 1919 an act was passed imposing a 10 per cent. tax on products of child labor transported between states. Declared unconstitutional by Supreme Court on ground that purpose of law was to abolish child labor and not to raise revenue.

(2) States Laws.
 (a) Massachusetts first state to legislate against child labor.
 (b) All states have some laws but these are not uniform.
 (c) Usually no state allows a child under 15 to work for wages.
 (d) In New Jersey he may work between 14 to 16 if he attends a continuation school for 6 hours per week.
 (e) There are laws for proper sanitary conditions, protection from dangerous machinery and working at night.

(3) Effectiveness of all laws depends upon proper inspection and enforcement.

f. Agencies for bettering conditions of children.
 (1) Children's Bureau in National Department of Labor.
 (2) National Child Labor Committee.
 (3) A great number of private social agencies.

g. Great need of co-operation between employers and school authorities in matter of child labor.

2. Women in Industry.
 a. Increased numbers in recent years.
 b. Now a social problem.
 c. More than 8,000,000 women are engaged in gainful occupations in United States.
 d. Wages of Women.
 Why lower than those of men?
 e. Conditions of work.
 Often unsanitary.
 f. Effects of bad working conditions.
 (1) Weak mothers mean weak children.
 (2) Low wages reduce wages of men.
 (3) General living conditions are bad.

g. Legislation regulating labor of women.
 (1) Many states have laws to safeguard women in industry.
 (a) Hours for work.
 (b) Night work.
 (c) Rest periods.
 (d) Guarded machinery.
 (e) Proper ventilation.
 (f) Suitable rest rooms.
 (g) Equal pay for equal work.

(2) Minimum Wage Law.
 (a) Massachusetts passed one—1912.
 (b) Growth of movement, by 1921 more than a dozen states had adopted such laws.
 (c) In 1923 United States Supreme Court declared minimum wage law of District of Columbia unconstitutional. The decision is regarded as one of the most important the court has ever rendered.
 (d) Arguments for it.
 (e) Arguments against it.

IMMIGRATION.

A. Definition of an Alien.

B. History and Extent of Immigration.

1. Changing rate. Immigration has come to the United States in successive waves.
 a. Foreign Causes: Periods of disturbed economic or political conditions at home.
 b. American Causes: Periods of great prosperity in U. S.

2. Numbers of immigrants entering the U. S.
 a. From Revolution to 1820 so few that no records were kept. First statistics obtained in 1820.
 b. In 1820 8,385 immigrants came.
 c. Between 1820 and present over 30,000,000 immigrants have come to the United States.
 d. 1890 marks beginning of larger scale of immigration.
 e. 1907 greatest number entered our country—1,285,349.

3. Distribution.
 a. Geographical.
 (1) Sections: A study of 1920 statistics shows that a triangle from Northwestern Minnesota to Southern end of Illinois, thence east through New Jersey and Delaware, comprising 18 per cent. of the area of the United States, contains 75 per cent. of our last 13,000,000 immigrants. New Jersey had in 1920 a total foreign born population of 23 per cent.
 (2) Country: Scandinavians poured into fertile Middle West, after Civil War. Developed great grain fields of Northwest.
 (3) City: Census of 1920 shows that three-fourths of all foreign born were living in Urban Communities.

4. Types of Immigrants.
 a. "Old Type." Those who came prior to 1883.
 (1) Teutonic and Celtic races.
 (2) From Northwestern Europe: Great Britain, Ireland, Germany, Scandinavia.
 (3) Nine-tenths of our immigrants came from these countries between 1820 and 1883.
 (4) Racial characteristics similar to original American Colonists. They were similar in political ideals, social training, and economic background.
 (5) Relatively a small number came to our shores.
 (6) Many skilled laborers. Few illiterates.
 (7) Assimilation therefore easy and rapid.

b. "New Type." Those who came after 1883.
 (1) Latin and Slavic races.
 (2) From Southern and Southeastern Europe.
 (3) Italy, Austria, Hungary, Greece, Poland, Russia, Serbia, and Turkey.
 (3) In 1914—75 per cent. of all the immigrants came from Southern Europe.
 (4) Different in character.
 (5) Greater proportion of men.
 (6) Assimilation difficult and slow.
 (7) Fewer immigrants naturalized.

C. Causes.

1. Desire to better economic conditions.
 a. The ease with which comfort seems to have been secured has been America's greatest drawing card.
 b. Severe economic distress at home, e. g., Irish Famine, 1845.
 c. Low money wages received at home.
 d. Great demand for unskilled labor in U. S.

2. Desire to better political conditions.
 a. Disturbed political conditions in Europe, e. g., Revolution of 1848 sent many Germans to U. S.

3. Desire to escape religious persecution.
 a. Many of the first colonists came here for religious reasons. All kinds of Protestants, Catholics, and Jews have found this country more comfortable for their faith.

4. Desire to escape Military Service.

5. Liberal policy of U. S. in admitting immigrants.

6. Easier and safer means of transportation.
 a. Activity of steamship companies in urging people to come to New World.
 b. American employers hired large numbers of laborers in their own country and paid their passage here. "Contract Labor" now forbidden.

D. Effect.

1. Economic.

- a. Development of America into great industrial nation, with help of immigrant labor.
 - (1) Tunnels and Railroads.
 - (2) Mines and Construction camps.
 - (3) Smelters, furnaces and factories.
- b. Lowered Wages. Immigrant laborer has lower standard of living, hence his willingness to accept low wage.
- c. Padrone system.
 - Conduct of Municipal government.
 - This system flourishes among Greeks and Italians, whose labor is exploited for the benefit of the master or Padrone.
- 2. Political.
 - a. Many have no conception of a democratic form of government.
 - b. Conduct of Municipal government.
 - The political "boss" has rallied around him the foreign vote of our large cities.
- 3. Social.
 - a. Large majority of males among later immigrants tends to decrease stabilizing influence of family life.
 - b. Percentage of illiteracy very high, and less effort made to learn our language and customs, making assimilation very difficult.
 - c. Tendency to widen class distinction. Low grade industrial workers exploited by American employers and we have few exceedingly rich. Many very poor.
 - d. Children of immigrants do show strong tendency toward crime, due to bad social environment. Foreign born do not show an unusual tendency toward crime.
 - e. Poverty has been greater among foreign born, but the number applying for relief is decreasing.
 - f. The immigrant has brought taste and talent for music and art, thus enriching our civilization.

E. Legislation on Immigration.

- 1. General.
 - a. First National Law, 1819.
 - (1) Attempt to care for steerage passengers.
 - (2) Provided for records to be kept.
 - b. Early laws encouraged immigration.
 - (1) 1862 War emergency Act passed for that purpose.
- 2. Restrictive.
 - a. Agitation against immigration began in early nineteenth century; e. g., Know Nothing and Native American Parties.
 - b. 1875. First exclusion act.
 - Certain classes definitely excluded.
 - c. 1882. First general immigration act, a more definite and stricter exclusion policy.
 - Chinese Exclusion Act.
 - First head tax of 50c. levied. Further legislation increased this in geometric proportion to \$8 in 1917.
 - d. 1885. Law excluding contract laborers.
 - This has been re-enacted in more recent laws.
 - e. 1907. An important and thoroughgoing measure enacted.
 - A Japanese Exclusion policy formulated.
 - The Gentlemen's Agreement.
 - f. Acts providing for increased immigration department; for restrictions on steamship companies; for additional classes excluded as undesirable. Act of 1917 important.
 - g. Attempts at literacy test vetoed by Presidents Cleveland, Taft, and Wilson. Finally passed. Every immigrant physically able must be able to read at least 30 words of some language.
 - h. 1921 law, and emergency act signed by President Harding. Restricts the number of any foreign group who may be admitted in any one year to 3 per cent. of the number of that nationality living

in U. S. as determined by the census of 1910. This has been continued until June 30, 1924.

- i. The restrictive immigration act helped to transfer in 15 months' time, 5 million people in U. S. out of work, to work at good pay, but country needs selective as well as restrictive immigration.

F. Oriental Immigration.

- 1. Chinese.
 - a. Began coming in 1849. Increased rapidly.
 - b. Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882. This forbids entrance of Chinese laboring class into this country. Resulted in decrease.
 - c. Census of 1920 shows about 72,000 in the U. S.
- 2. Japanese.
 - a. Very few in the country until after 1890. By 1910 there were 72,000. They now outnumber the Chinese. Census of 1920 shows 111,025.
 - b. Settled on Pacific Coast in cities and agricultural slopes.
 - c. A real problem because of industrial competition and race friction.
 - d. California State Legislation discriminates against Japanese in matter of land-holding and schools.
 - e. Gentlemen's Agreement of 1907 forms basis of relations between U. S. and Japan.
 - By it Japan agrees that no passport for the U. S. shall be issued to a Japanese laborer.

3. Other Orientals.

Not sufficient to create a serious problem.
See World Almanac for statistics of Turks, Armenians, East Indians, etc.

- 4. Social effect of Oriental Immigration very great because Mongolian presents an almost impossible problem of assimilation. Decision of Supreme Court, 1923. Citizenship not granted to Hindu.

G. Problems of Immigration. In 1922-23 the great demand for labor not supplied under the 3 per cent. quota has made immigration a national problem second in importance to none.

- 1. City Congestion.
 - a. Great increase of urban population.
 - b. Causes of city growth.
 - c. Scarcity of farm labor. Need to shift foreign people who are suited to it into farm work.
 - d. Created the need of social welfare work.
- 2. Labor Supply.
 - a. Most of the evils which have resulted from enormous immigration of the past 25 years have been due to the reckless greed for cheap labor.
 - b. Danger of setting pocketbooks above patriotism.
 - c. Need to realize that cheap labor is so cheap it is dear at any price. Usually in the end it is socially and politically very expensive.
 - d. Vital question is not how fast we can possibly develop this country, but how can we best develop it.
- 3. Aids for the Immigrant.
 - a. Federal Government established in 1907 a Division of Information in the Bureau of Labor Statistics.
 - b. Immigration Commission.
 - c. State Governments have enacted legislation for the protection of the alien and betterment of his condition.
 - d. Many associations have been formed—Travelers' Aid, Immigration Committee of Chambers of Commerce, Social Settlement Workers, Council of Jewish Women, etc.
- 4. Interpretation and Application of Immigrant Laws.
 - a. Great pressure brought to bear on the Department of Labor to admit legally excluded persons.
 - b. Lawyers by their handling of cases to satisfy individual interest make a mockery of the law.
 - c. Decision of examining boards reversed because of political pressure.
- 5. Americanization.
 - a. This should be a mutually helpful process whereby

native Americans would help the immigrant in adjusting himself to his new environment, while, in turn, the immigrant would be permitted and encouraged to make his own contribution to American life.

b. We do not ask the immigrant to forget his native land and language, but we do ask that he be loyal to his adopted home and learn the English language.

c. Work should center on effort to teach:

- (1) Language.
- (2) American ways.
- (3) American ideals, ideas, and standards.

d. Agencies, many both public and private:

- (1) Public schools including night schools.
- (2) Churches and social settlements.
- (3) Factories organize classes.
- (4) Community Centers.

e. Native Americans need.

He who does not feel the necessity of helping his own nation to take her place honorably among the nations as a champion of fairness, truthfulness, clean living and equality of opportunity is a poor citizen.

f. Foreign Press.

(1) It is probable that more foreign language newspapers are published and read in the United States in proportion to the foreign born population than are published in the home countries in proportion to native born. In New York City there are over 30 different nationalities that maintain presses.

6. Naturalization.

- a. Regulated by Law of Congress.
- b. Exclusions.
- c. Legal process by which an alien becomes a naturalized citizen.
- d. Legal status of wife and minor children of such a citizen.
- e. Legal status of children born abroad of citizens of U. S.

POLITICAL PROBLEMS.

I. The Problem of Democratic Government in 1789.

1. Geography of the country.
2. Rural population.
3. Lack of communication and transportation.

II. Suffrage.

1. A limited colonial suffrage.
2. Federal Constitution and suffrage.
3. Early state suffrage aristocratic.
4. Gradual extension of suffrage during first half of nineteenth century—fluence of westward migration.
5. The Civil War and Negro suffrage.

 - a. Fourteenth Amendment.
 - b. Congressional Reconstruction.
 - c. Fifteenth Amendment.
 - d. Negro suffrage today.

6. Woman's suffrage.

 - a. Attitude of states.
 - b. Susan B. Anthony Amendment.

7. Present-day restrictions on the right to vote—a state affair.

III. Evolution of the Secret Ballot.

1. Oral voting.
2. No uniformity of ballots—supplied by voters, candidates, and parties.
3. Evils connected with the open ballot.
4. Australian Ballot.

 - a. Secrecy.
 - b. Uniformity.
 - c. Sworn election officials.
 - d. Lessens bribery.

5. Office column vs. party column ballot.

 - a. Office column requires more intelligence.
 - b. Party column encourages voting of straight party ticket.

6. Short ballot.

7. Preferential ballot.

IV. Nominating and Electing Candidates to Public Office.

1. Caucus system.
2. Political parties extra constitutional.
3. Conventions—state, county, city.

 - a. Delegates.
 - b. Boss control.
 - c. Party platform.
 - d. Present-day New Jersey convention.

4. Primary elections.

 - a. Early history.

 - (1) Conducted by party, with no state control.
 - (2) Selected delegates to conventions.

 - b. Direct primary.

 - (1) Convention abolished or much reduced in power.
 - (2) Name placed on ballot by petition.
 - (3) State control.
 - (4) A party election.

 5. Nomination by petition.
 6. Presidential nominating convention.

 - a. Place of meeting.
 - b. Delegates—how chosen, how many.
 - c. Organization of convention.
 - d. Many able persons not nominated because of small electoral vote of state, section of country, or because state always voted for the same party, irrespective of candidate.
 - e. Party platform—what it says, how it says it, what it does not say.

 7. Elaborate party machinery.
 8. Corruption in politics.

 - a. Great increase in use of money due to direct primary.
 - b. Attitude of public toward increased use of money.
 - c. Publicity of campaign funds and expenses.
 - d. Corrupt Practices Acts.

V. Spoils System vs. Merit System.

 1. Spoils system a gradual development.
 2. Persistence of spoils system.
 3. Development of civil service since 1883.

VI. Additional Present-day Problems.

 1. Municipal government.

 - a. Early form and its gradual abolition.
 - b. Commission and city manager plans—advantages and disadvantages.
 - c. Home rule for cities.

 2. Direct democracy—initiative, referendum, and recall.

 - Arguments for and against these forms of direct government.

 3. The judicial power.

 - a. Influence in the United States.
 - b. Criticism of power of courts.
 - c. Arguments for and against checking the judicial power.

 4. Financing the Government.

 - a. Increased cost of government.
 - b. Types of taxes.
 - c. Revenues and expenditures of local governments—tax limitation.
 - d. State revenues and expenses.
 - e. National government practically unlimited as to power of raising revenue.

 - (1) Budget system.
 - (2) Congress not bound to accept recommendations of budget director.

 - f. Tax exempt securities and tax reform.

 5. Regulating business enterprises and public utilities.

 - a. State regulation of inter-state business a failure.
 - b. Federal regulation—Sherman Act, Clayton Act, Federal Trade Commission, Webb-Pomerene Act.
 - c. State Utilities Commissions.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

A. The most important factor in our international relations today is the need of:
A knowledge and an appreciation of other countries and of other people of the world.

B. International Law.

1. Character—agreement among nations about what is civilized.
2. Enforcement—depends upon honor of nations.

C. The President and Foreign Relations.

1. The President's powers and duties.
2. The Senate's powers and duties.

D. American Foreign Policy.

1. Neutrality and isolation.
"Peace and friendship with all nations, entangling alliance with none."—Washington-Jefferson.
Developed in Washington's administration.
Dignity of nation upheld by John Adams' relations with France.
2. Freedom of the seas.
United States had always been a champion of the idea that private property, unless contraband, should be safe from capture on high seas even in war. Jefferson and Madison maintain this policy even at the cost of war.
War with Tripoli—War of 1812.
3. The Monroe Doctrine—1823.
 - a. Events leading to it.
Russia's designs upon Pacific Coast.
Policy of friendship with South America promoted by Henry Clay.
Statesmanship of John Quincy Adams in dealing with Russia and England.
 - b. Policies outlined by Monroe.
 - (1) Non-colonization.
 - (2) Non-interference.
 - c. New policy.
There are two political systems—a monarchical system, founded on military principles, and a republican system, founded on the will of the people—and henceforth they would confine themselves each to its own sphere.
 - d. Later interpretation of the Doctrine.
 - (1) Polk used it as justification in Southwest, 1845-1848.
 - (2) Lincoln—Maximilian in Mexico, 1864.
 - (3) Cleveland—Venezuela Boundary, 1895.
 - (4) Roosevelt—Debts of Venezuela and Santo Domingo.
 - (5) Wilson—Mexico and Treaty of Versailles, 1919.
 - e. America's part in foreign affairs—twentieth century.
 - a. Acquired Hawaii, 1898.
 - b. Acquired Philippines, 1898.
 - c. "Open Door" policy—John Hay, 1899.
 - d. Acted in Moroccan trouble.
 - e. Panama.
 - f. Central America.
 - g. Questions arising after the World War.
 - f. Arbitration—implies that a third party settles the dispute and renders a decision.
 - a. Treaties.
 - (1) Since 1824 United States has had arbitration treaties with England.
 - (2) Bryan Treaties of Arbitration.
 - b. The Hague Conferences.
 - (1) 1899—Creation of International Court of Arbitration.
 - (2) 1907—Recommendation of Supreme Court of World to supplement existing tribunal.
 - (3) The outbreak of World War prevented the convening of the third conference, called for 1915.
 - c. The Washington Conference.
 - (1) Opened November 11, 1921; closed February 6, 1922.
Nine nations represented.
 - (2) Two great questions:
 - (a) Disarmament.

(b) Pacific and Far Eastern Question.
Secretary of State Charles E. Hughes presented his plan.
Work accomplished.

E. America and the World War.

1. Rights of neutrals in time of war.
 - a. Great Britain claimed right to search ships and censor mail as a war measure.
 - b. Germany's violation of the rights of neutrals.
Submarine warfare.
2. America's entrance into war, 1917.
3. Peace.
 - a. America's great importance as a World Power.
 - b. Treaty of Versailles, including League of Nations covenant.
 - c. President Wilson's policy—Repudiated by Republican Party.
 - d. Shall America assume new responsibilities?
 - e. Her refusal to join League of Nations.
- F. The World Court—Peace Palace, The Hague.

 1. Permanent Court of International Justice.
 2. Organized by League of Nations.
 3. Planned by eminent jurists. Elihu Root, from United States, a delegate.
 4. First met February 15, 1922.
 5. Eleven judges, four deputies.
 6. Work of court includes four kinds of problems:
 - a. Meaning of treaty.
 - b. Questions of international law.
 - c. Existence of any fact which, if established, would be considered a breach of any international pledge or duty.
 - d. Extent and nature of reparation to be made or damages to be paid.

G. League of Nations.

 1. Incorporated in Treaty of Versailles, 1919.
 2. President Wilson proposed that United States join.
 3. Purpose:
 - "To promote internal peace and security.
 - To induce nations not to resort to war.
 - To establish open, honorable, and just relations between nations.
 - To induce them to accept the understandings of international law.
 - To maintain regard for the obligations of treaties."
 4. Organization.
 - a. Executive Council.
One representative from Great Britain, France, Italy, Japan, and one each from four other nations, to be selected by the assembly.
Powers and responsibilities.
 - b. Assembly.
Each member nation represented with vote.
Large and small nations supposed to be equal in power in Assembly.
 - c. Mandates.
Purpose of.
How appointed.
Responsibility to the League of Nations.
 - d. The International Court.
How composed.
Nature and importance of its decisions.
 - e. Commissions.
Kinds.
How composed.
Nature of work; e. g., armaments and military matters.
 5. Amendments.
"Nothing in the covenant of the League should affect the validity of regional understandings, like the Monroe Doctrine, for securing the maintenance of peace."
Provisions for admitting new members.
Amendments must be ratified by all members of Council and majority of Assembly.
 6. Policy by which United States should be controlled in her foreign relations.
 - H. Pan-American Union.

1. Its purpose is to promote better relations.
All problems find solution among those who desire to be friendly and just.
2. Director-General is in charge.
First Pan-American Conference, 1889, Washington, D. C.
3. Fifth Pan-American Conference, Santiago, Chili, March until May, 1923.
All of twenty-one American republics represented except Mexico, Peru, Bolivia. Canada not represented.
4. Pan-American Building in Washington resulted from:
a. Energy of first Director-General, John Barrett.
b. Gift of Andrew Carnegie and donation of twenty-one republics.
5. Belief that Panama Canal would result in United States assuming a commanding position in South America trade relations. Has it done so?
6. Is the "big brother" attitude of the United States agreeable to Latin-America, or do they feel entitled to a relationship of more equality?

CRIME.

- A. Kinds of Crime.
 1. Crimes against government.
 - a. Treason.
 - b. Counterfeiting.
 - c. Anarchy.
 2. Crimes against society.
 - a. Speeding.
 - b. Disturbances of the peace.
 3. Crimes against person.
 - a. Murder.
 - b. Assault.
 - c. Robbery.
 4. Crimes against property.
 - a. Arson.
 - b. Burglary.
 - c. Theft.
 5. Miscellaneous.
- B. Extent of Crime.
 1. Statistics.
 2. Increase or decrease?
- C. Causes of Crime.
 1. Individual.
 - a. Hereditary.
 - b. Lack of education and training.
 - c. Occupation.
 2. Social.
 - a. Economic conditions.
 - b. Lack of law enforcement.
 - c. Court procedure.
 - d. Weak public sentiment.
 - e. Conditions in our jails and prisons.
- D. Changes in the Form of Crime.
 1. Decrease in number of brutal crimes.
 2. Crimes of the entrepreneur.
 3. Political crimes.
- E. Changing Attitude Toward Crime and Criminals.
 1. Old methods.
 - a. Attitude of retribution and repression.
 - (1) Confinement in cells.
 - (2) No incentive to honest work.
 - (3) Enforcement of silence.
 - (4) Frequent executions.
 - (5) System of espionage.
 - (6) Brutality of guards.
 - (7) Lack of responsibility and initiative of the prisoners.
 2. New method.
 - a. Attitude of reformation and prevention.
 - (1) Establishment of better living conditions.
 - (2) Requirement of good, honest work, with pay.
 - (3) Supervised recreation.
 - (4) Incentives for righteous conduct.
 - (5) Indeterminate sentences.
 - (6) Parole.
 - (7) Creation of public opinion for sympathetic treatment of ex-convicts.

F. Juvenile Offender.

1. Juvenile court and court of domestic relations.

POVERTY.

- A. Classification.
 1. Dependents.
 2. Defectives.
 3. Delinquents.
- B. Extent of Poverty and Pauperism.
 1. In foreign countries.
 2. In the United States.
- C. Causes.
 1. Physical.
 - a. Floods.
 - b. Storms.
 - c. Fires.
 - d. Epidemics among domestic animals.
 - e. Epidemics among insect pests.
 2. Individual.
 - a. Sickness.
 - b. Accidents.
 - c. Intemperance.
 - d. Immorality.
 - e. Mental incapacity.
 - f. Waste of wealth.
 3. Social.
 - a. Low wages.
 - b. Unemployment.
 - c. Bad housing.
 - d. Poor economic conditions.
 - e. Broken family ties.
 - (1) Death.
 - (2) Desertion.
 - (3) Divorce.
 - (a) Hasty and ill advised marriages are easily contracted in America.
 - (b) Weakening of tradition.
 - D. Remedies.
 1. Education of the poor.
 - a. Character development.
 - b. Vocational training and guidance.
 - c. Elimination of sexual immorality.
 - d. Complete segregation of defectives.
 - e. Knowledge of medical science and sanitation.
 2. Controlled immigration.
 3. Wiser philanthropy.
 4. Reforms.
 - a. Abolishment of traffic in liquor and drugs.
 - b. Uniformity of marriage and divorce laws.
 - c. Establishment of unemployment insurance.
 - d. Elimination of unnecessary unemployment.

RACE PROBLEM.

- A. *The Negro.*
 1. Background of the Negro.
 - a. Origin of race.
 - b. The Africa environment.
 - c. Slave trade.
 - d. Slave life.
 - e. Negro characteristics.
 2. Number of Negroes.
 - a. The increase.
 - b. The distribution.
 3. Problems of the Negro.
 - a. Reconstruction.
 - b. Political problem.
 - c. Social problem.
 - d. Crime and pauperism.
 - e. Industrial problems.
 - f. Education and leadership.
 - Booker T. Washington and Tuskegee.
 - g. The solution.
 - B. *The Indian.*
 1. The early history.
 - a. Numbers.
 - b. Relation of red man and white man.
 2. Their civilization.
 - a. Their wealth.

- b. Bureau of Indian Affairs in Dept. of Interior.
- c. Passage of Dawes Act, 1887.
 - Beginning of attempt to have definite Indian policy.
- d. Reservations—177 in twenty-three States.
- e. Education.
- f. Process of being made a citizen.
- 3. The problem of the Indian and his relation to the white man now prominent.
 - a. Serious attacks made on the Indian Bureau.
 - Charged with wasting
 - (1) Millions of dollars.
 - (2) Self-respect of a race.
 - (3) Material resources by inefficiency.
 - (4) Spiritual resources by dependence and pauperism.
 - (5) Confidence of Indian.
 - (6) Labor of Indian.
 - (7) Youth in segregated schools.
 - (8) Maturity in wigwam.
 - Charged with conserving only
 - (1) Idleness.
 - (2) Ignorance.
 - (3) Vice.
 - b. Need of a definite Indian policy of the United States.

- (1) Indians still on reservations.
- (2) Those who have acquired full citizenship rights. Many in Oklahoma have fallen heir to great wealth.
- 4. The moral obligation upon the government to atone, in so far as is possible, for past wrongs, and to make every effort to protect them in the future from further invasion of their rights.
- C. *The Yellow Race.*
 - 1. Attitude held toward them.
 - a. Is it necessary?
 - b. Is it just?
 - c. The part prejudice, jealousy, and ignorance have had.
 - 2. Chinese.
 - a. Where they are, what they do.
 - b. Their presence in America not alarming, because of exclusion act.
 - 3. Japanese.
 - a. Characteristics.
 - b. Occupations—Students.
 - c. California's problem—Land holding.
 - 4. Importance of friendly negotiations to handle perplexing questions.

Book Reviews

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Some Recent Books on Political Science

If the problems of modern governments could be solved by writing about them the millennium would have been reached long ago. The theory of representative institutions, constitutional charters, analyses of particular institutions at work, the political machinery behind the skeletal structure, the centripetal tendencies in various governments considered both generally and in respect of particular problems—all these matters are discussed in volumes which have been published during the last few weeks.

Professor Delbrück's book¹ is composed of lectures delivered at the University of Berlin in 1913. Although they are occasionally acute and suggestive, their general objective seems to be interest rather than profundity. The translator compares them to Woodrow Wilson's lectures on "Constitutional Government in the United States." This is too complimentary to Professor Delbrück, for the American painted a notable portrait while the German has prepared a skilful advertising poster. He is attempting, that is to say, to defend the German Monarchy in comparison with English constitutional monarchy or republican institutions. Derogatory things may be said about the English and French systems and their fallacies may be pointed out, but it does not thereby follow that the German scheme was either more efficient or more theoretically sound. This, in the main, is Professor Delbrück's method of argument. An epilogue, written in 1920, casts a few stones at the new German constitution.

The bases of all modern governments, and not the merits of a particular system, are dealt with by Professor Holcombe. His volume² discusses the position of the Church, the forces (such as nationalism and

the struggle of the classes) which determine political action, the concepts of justice and liberty to which lip service is done by all modern states, and the general purposes for which governments exist. These are, in the phraseology of the American Constitution, domestic tranquility, the common defense, and the general welfare. It was not Professor Holcombe's intention to write an original treatise in political theory; he has sought simply to give "an introduction to the study of the science of government," and he has carried out his purpose in an admirable manner. The bibliographical notes are particularly valuable.

Professor Newton's collection of constitutions³ has been prepared principally for students of the unification of South Africa, but it will be useful to other students as well. A good many of the documents which are included are fairly accessible. Those relating to the British Dominions, for example, have been published by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. But it is a convenience to have the constitutions of Switzerland, the United States, the Netherlands, the British Dominions, Brazil, and Germany in one volume, and it is particularly useful to be given extracts from the speeches of statesmen who were concerned in the setting up of the new constitutions. There is thus some explanation of the ideas which were at work. Professor Newton prefixes to his collection an introduction which gives some facts as to the centripetal and centrifugal forces which were at work, but which fails to go very deeply into the nature of, or essential requirements for, successful federalism.

Two political systems—the British West Indies and Belgium—have been given separate books. Professor Wrong's monograph⁴ is an excellent piece of work. He considers the West Indies both from the stand-

point of their place within the Empire and from the standpoint of the manner in which their government has developed. The difficulties in the way of complete self-government, the possibilities of federation of some sort, the success of colonial administration, and the efficiency of the local institutions—all are most adequately dealt with. Professor Reed's volume⁵ is the latest and the briefest in the series of Government Handbooks. It is based on personal study in Belgium. While Belgium is a small country, and its government is in many respects like that of France, it is, nevertheless, as Professor Reed says, an "egregious error...to assume indifference to the institutions of small states. It is the vigorous vitality of an organism, political or biological, and not its size, which determines its importance in the processes of evolution." Professor Reed, however, has described rather than analyzed Belgium political institutions. His remarks on the Senate and on the power of dissolving the legislature, for example, fail to indicate clearly just how far the Senate agrees or disagrees with the Chamber, and of how much value the possibility of a new election is in persuading the legislature not to overthrow a Cabinet. Professor Reed is more concerned with the Belgium Government in books than in action, but what he has written is readable, and, as far as it goes, valuable.

American students of politics have reason to be grateful to Professor Brooks for his volume⁶ on political parties. The industry and care necessary for its preparation must have been enormous; practically all the available literature and the pertinent statutes are referred to. As a work of reference the book is invaluable. One notices, however, the neglect of certain problems, which are on the periphery of party organization: "blocs," pressure groups, lobbies, methods of party control in legislatures, and the manipulation of public opinion. But so far as the legal aspects of parties and elections are concerned, Professor Brooks has done an admirable piece of work. The fourteen essays⁷ by the late Professor of History at Amherst College relate for the most part to American political parties and their history. The reader will agree with Mr. Morrow that the essays show "a singularly well poised mind, with a long reach backward and a hopeful view of the future." It was a fitting tribute to a great teacher to reprint the essays as one of the Amherst Centennial Books. Mr. Morrow's extensive introduction fits Morse's contributions into the literature of political parties. One might think that the introduction had been written by a professor and that the essays were those of a banker with scholarly tastes.

American federalism is the subject with which Mr. Thompson deals in the most elaborate treatise⁸ which has yet appeared on the expanding functions of the central government and the diminishing powers of the states. The gradual extension of federal control under the taxing, commerce, and postal clauses of the federal constitution; the use of the treaty-making authority for the same purpose, and the resort to the spending powers of Congress for coercion as well as

gratuities are described by Mr. Thompson. Mr. Hennessy's volume⁹ breaks a lance against the Eighteenth Amendment. The necessity for child labor legislation; the measures passed by the states; the struggle for federal action twice checked by decisions of the United States Supreme Court, and the movement for a Twentieth Amendment to the Constitution are adequately covered in Mr. Fuller's book.¹⁰ He writes with knowledge gained as one of the leaders in the movement which he describes.

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¹ *Government and the Will of the People*. By Hans Delbrück (translated by Roy S. MacElwee). Oxford University Press, New York, 1923. xiii, 192 pp. \$3.50.

² *The Foundations of the Modern Commonwealth*. By Arthur N. Holcombe. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1923. ix, 491 pp. \$3.00.

³ *Federal and Unified Constitutions*. Edited by Arthur Percival Newton. Longmans, Green & Co., London and New York, 1923. viii, 444 pp. \$5.00.

⁴ *Government of the West Indies*. By Hume Wrong. Oxford University Press, Oxford, 1923. 190 pp. \$3.50.

⁵ *Government and Politics of Belgium*. By Thomas Harrison Reed. World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, 1924. xv, 197 pp. \$1.60.

⁶ *Political Parties and Electoral Problems*. By Robert C. Brooks. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1923. xv, 638 pp. \$3.50.

⁷ *Parties and Party Leaders*. By Anson Daniel Morse (introduction by Dwight Whitney Morrow). Marshall Jones Company, Boston, 1923. xlii, 267 pp. \$2.50.

⁸ *Federal Centralization*. By Walter Thompson. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1923. vii, 399 pp.

⁹ *Citizen or Subject?* By Francis X. Hennessy. E. P. Dutton and Company, New York, 1923. xxiv, 466 pp. \$3.50.

¹⁰ *Child Labor and the Constitution*. By Raymond G. Fuller. Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1923. xvi, 323 pp. \$2.50.

History of Assyria. By A. T. Olmstead. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1923. XXIX, 695 pp. \$7.50.

This is the handsomest book relative to the Ancient field which the reviewer has seen in many a moon. A companion volume to Breasted's *History of Egypt*, it is evidence of the technical progress achieved in the art of book-making during the past eighteen years. The cover design, a reconstruction in orange, blue, and gold, of the palace gate at Sargonburg, the colored plate, and the 176 photographs and drawings are all superbly done. Two indices (of proper names and subjects) and a large and adequate map, in colors, of the Near East (1000-600 B. C.) complete the volume.

The historical task has been performed with the critical care and assiduous scholarship which students of history have learned to expect from the pen of Professor Olmstead. As might be surmised, he has made liberal use of the material he had previously assembled in his doctoral dissertation on *Western Asia in the Reign of Sargon of Assyria* and in his many articles published in the *American Journal of Semitic Languages and Literatures*, the *Journal of the American Oriental Society*, and elsewhere. In consequence the reader is somewhat embarrassed with a wealth of detail and a plethora of place and personal

names. This is particularly true of the chapters dealing with the political and military events of early Assyrian history, of Ashur-nasir-apal, Shalmaneser III, Sennacherib, and Esarhaddon. The data of the official chronicles is skilfully controlled by the author's extensive knowledge of past and present geographical conditions, the Assyrian letters of the Harper Collection newly-translated by Professor Waterman, of Michigan, the available art and archeological remains (whether *in situ*, or in the European and American museums), epigraphy, linguistics, Old Testament exegesis, and the comparative history of the entire Near Eastern terrain. His first chapters might have drawn further inspiration from the studies of Myres and Cook on Early Cultures and the Semites, if the first volume of the Cambridge Ancient History had been available.

Teachers of Ancient History in colleges and secondary schools will find the book especially valuable for supplementary reading, because of the illustrative material and the chapters on the civilization and culture of the Assyrians. Perhaps best suited to the purpose are those dealing with the building activities of Ashur-nasir-apal at Kalhu (ch. IX), of Sargon at Sargonsburg or Dur-Sharrukin (ch. XXIII) and of Sennacherib and Ashur-bani-apal at Nineveh (chs. XXVI and XXXVIII); and the general synthesis of agricultural, urban, industrial, commercial, legal, artistic, literary, religious, and political conditions, which is contained in chapters XXXIX to XLIX, inclusive.

The work could have been rendered even more serviceable by greater brilliance of style, and by the addition of a critical historical bibliography, a chronological table, and a reference list of biblical passages. However, it is by all odds the best single work on Assyrian History.

J. R. KNIPPING.

Ohio State University.

The Life of Caleb Cushing. By Claude M. Fuess. Harcourt, Brace and Co., New York, 1923. Two volumes, xi, 454, vii, 442 pp. \$10.00.

Few figures in American history have been more generally condemned than Caleb Cushing. Students have long awaited the unbiased estimate of him which Professor Fuess has presented.

Cushing was the victim of his carefully-trained, logical mind. Rational and unemotional himself he had not sufficient insight into human character to realize that most of his fellows were creatures of impulse rather than of reason. This defect was combined with an utter inability to conciliate the enemies he made all too easily. These handicaps explain much. Cushing started his political career with the conventional ideas of a conservative New England Whig, which included an appreciation of the strength of the legal position of slavery. When the break between Tyler and Clay took place, Cushing, as Webster's confidant, resented the domination of the Kentuckian. Thereupon, he became Tyler's spokesman in Congress and, unhampered by abolition views,

freely consorted with the President's southern friends. This course let loose upon him the wrath of the New England abolitionists and the Clay men; the result was his rejection by the Senate when Tyler sought to appoint him Secretary of the Treasury. His fidelity was not unrewarded, however, and he went to China as the first envoy of the United States. His successful experience in obtaining commercial privileges in China increased his desire to see the United States grow in power, and on his return Cushing joined the imperialistic Democrats. In New England, thereafter, he was regarded as an apostate.

His constant association with southerners during Tyler's administration and his service in the Mexican War gradually made him a more vigorous defender of the legal rights of the South in regard to slavery. As such he served in Pierce's cabinet where, in spite of his extraordinarily competent legal services, he did much to make that body unpopular. But the climax came in 1860. The South whose legal rights he had defended attempted to destroy the Union. To Cushing this was unpatriotic, and he loyally supported the Lincoln administration, though his motives were distrusted and his services rejected by his native state. Although he had always been a unionist and became a Republican, his reputation and his enemies pursued him, and after the war the Senate deprived him of his most cherished ambition, appointment to the chief place in the Supreme Court. This was the most bitter disappointment in a life marked by bitter disappointments.

This interesting story Professor Fuess has related in a very pleasing way. His style is clear and absorbing, and has literary finish. His chief sources, the voluminous Cushing papers, have been judiciously used and in portraying a figure that was the center of so much controversy he has maintained a consistently judicial attitude. Not the least value of the work is its inclusion, wholly or in part, of 275 letters to and from Cushing, the greater number of which have never before been published. The chief limitation of the book for the historical student is the fact that it has no bibliographical apparatus, and footnotes indicating the sources of statements are extremely rare. It is a real biography and, in a proper setting, carefully explains a complex and unfortunate personality.

Roy F. NICHOLS.
Columbia College.

Proceedings of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland. Number 21, 1923. Lena C. Van Bibber, Sec.-Treas., 129 E. North Ave., Baltimore, Md. 96 pp. \$1.00.

This number of the *Proceedings* is the best that has been produced in recent years. It covers the New York Meeting, May 5-6, 1923, and the Bethlehem Meeting, December 1, 1923.

For the former meeting there are three papers on the problem of tests in history and the social sciences, and a suggestive discussion concerning the aims and outcomes of history teaching. There follow six short

papers on problems of nationalism and internationalism. The longest contribution in the volume is by Professor C. J. H. Hayes in which he points out the modernity and the dangers of nationalism. Professor J. Montgomery Gambrill, President of the Association during 1923, pleads for the recognition of the "World Community" as a fact, and for the study of its problems in school and college. "If this could be done and if, in time, our teachers could be reasonably well prepared for the work, there might be hope that men would ultimately find the ways of organizing and controlling their world community for the welfare and happiness of peoples."

From the Bethlehem meeting come two papers. The first is on the Williams Institute of Politics by the late Baron Korff, whose recent death is mourned by all who have heard or known him. The second is an illuminating discussion of "Corfu and the League of Nations," by Professor John H. Latané.

In conclusion, there is one thing that the reviewer believes, and another that he knows. He *believes* that a little more pure history ought occasionally to creep into this History Teachers Association. He *knows* that no teacher of history or of the related social sciences can afford to be outside of this Association and without its *Proceedings*.

R. W. KELSEY.

Haverford College.

Book Notes

The Worker in Modern Economic Society, compiled by Paul H. Douglas, Curtice N. Hitchcock, and Willard E. Atkins, is the latest addition to the Materials for the Study of Business series. (University of Chicago Press, 1923; 929 pp., \$4.70.) This comprehensive collection of extracts or adaptations from several hundred writers of varied interests and points of view, though intended primarily for college classes studying labor problems, supplies a very valuable body of readings for high school or college courses in economic history, economics, "Problems of Democracy," and other composite courses now growing familiar. It begins with a section on Human Nature and Industry, in which Graham Wallas, J. B. Watson, Vernon Kellogg, A. A. Goldenweiser, William James, W. G. Sumner, John Dewey, E. L. Thorndike, W. F. Ogburn, and others are represented. The remaining five sections present material representing various shades of opinion on the development of economic organization, the worker in his relation to the market, security and risk, the worker's approach to his problems (including organization, policies, and methods of unions and labor in politics), the employer's approach, the community's approach (including questions of legislation, the courts, methods of securing industrial peace). The psychological and historical opening discussions are a feature of special interest.

Crowell's Dictionary of Business and Finance is a comprehensive work of reference, alphabetically arranged, with entries ranging from a line or two up

to five pages for the group of terms under Trust, nine pages for the group under Stocks, and seventeen pages for the group under Bond. In most cases the treatment goes somewhat beyond mere definition. "It is a composite work done by many hands under the direction of the publishers," and the lack of a responsible editor is in some ways evident. The English is untechnical, but not notable for effectiveness and clarity. Nevertheless, it is a useful work of reference, with a field to itself. (Thomas Y. Crowell Co., New York, 1923; 608 pp., 8vo, \$3.00.) An Appendix gives an account of the monetary system of the U. S., and a number of useful tables and summaries.

Near the close of the World War, in 1918, *London and Its Environs* inaugurated The Blue Guides, following closely the plan of the famous Baedekers, and edited by Findlay Muirhead, who had long been the English editor of that German series of guide books. A new edition now brings the *London* down to 1922, making it reliable, except for a few matters of detail, for the current year. Blue Guides to England, Wales, Switzerland, Paris, Belgium, and the Western Front, are also ready. Except for some inferiority in the maps (especially in the printing of names) that appear in the Appendix, the book compares well with the Baedeker and has the great advantage of being up-to-date. (Macmillan, New York; 516 pp., Appendix, 74 pp. of tables and index to plans, 31 maps and plans, most of them in color or tint, \$5.00). *Washington, A Guide Book for Travelers*, compiled by Frederic Taber Cooper under the editorship of Fremont Rider, was one of Rider's Guides which began to appear in 1922 as a series of "American Baedekers." The work has been done with care and with the advantage of expert advice and criticism; the treatment is full and detailed, the typography clear. The three maps and 22 plans are inferior to those of the Blue Guides or the Baedekers. There is an extended index. The book is an invaluable aid for the visitor to our national capital. (Macmillan, New York, 548 pp., \$2.50.)

The New York Walk Book, No. 2 in the "Outing Series" of the American Geographical Society, is a fascinating little volume to every lover of nature and the "hike," and in many ways to students of geography as well. Here one finds definite and detailed information about the country within fifty to one hundred miles from the city of New York, numerous clear illustrations, and seven or eight double-page large-scale topographical maps showing roads, trails, trolley lines and railroads, springs and wells. An appendix adds brief accounts of plant life, geology, fire laws, equipment, suggestions for overnight stops, lists of outing clubs and of maps, and guide books. The information is exact and carefully compiled, the pen sketches show graphically the characteristic features of the landscapes, the clear maps with their contours are compiled from the topographic sheets of the U. S. Geological Survey. The format is in every respect artistic and charming. (New York, 1923, 217 pp., index, \$2.00).

Teachers and others interested in economic history and industrial organization will welcome the revised edition of *Modern Industrialism* (D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1923; xvi, 358 pp.) by Frank L. McVey. While no radical departures have been made in treatment in the new edition, three new chapters, namely, The Orient and the West, Industry and Taxation, and The Widening Circle of Democracy in Industry, have been added. New paragraphs have also been appended to several of the older chapters for the purpose of bringing the discussion down to date. All the statistical material has been carefully revised and enlarged. The illustrations, twenty or more, and the trade map, appearing in the earlier volume, have been omitted. The new chapters are very suggestive both in content and point of view, but the discussion relative to Germany and the World War (p. 89) is somewhat misleading in view of the documentary materials which have come to the light of day since the war. In one important respect the volume is disappointing: it lacks graphs and charts; mere figures in themselves are all-too-frequently devoid of meaning for the average student. Furthermore, the value of the revised edition would have been enhanced had the author seen fit to add a bibliographical note.—HARRY J. CARMAN.

H. J. Eckenrode's *Jefferson Davis, President of the South* (Macmillan, N. Y., 1923; 366 pp., \$2.50), has four general themes. First, the fundamental cause of the Civil War was the conflict between Nordic and non-Nordic ideals; the tropical Nordics of the South, standing for "an agricultural organization of life, for political conservation, for social order," fought rather than submit to the non-Nordic tendencies of an industrialized North, led by men appearing as the champions of humanity and the preachers of democracy. Second, the South was defeated because the Confederate leaders had no comprehensive plan of military strategy. Third, Davis, although in many ways remarkable, was not great enough to realize this. Finally, the defeat of the South removed the last barrier against the non-Nordic industrialization of the nation, which will eventuate in a peaceful and generally contented but very dull and uninspired communism. The book is written in an interesting manner, and is nowhere commonplace. The picture of Davis as President is vivid and human. The parts devoted to the discussion of the Confederacy during the war represent extended study of that vast mine, the "Official Record." However, the author has so clothed his thought in florid style, sweeping statement, and extravagant phrase, and has so often left highly controversial statements wholly unsupported by evidence, that many will fail to take the book seriously.—ROY F. NICHOLS.

Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia, reviewed in March, has been published in a slightly revised form, in ten volumes instead of eight. The price is \$55.00.

Courses in the Social Studies for Junior High Schools, by Professor Bessie L. Pierce, makes available detailed outlines of courses worked out for and in the first cycle at the University High School at the

University of Iowa. "The European Setting of United States History" from primitive man to "the Renaissance" is studied in the seventh grade; United States history in the eighth, and "Problems in Citizenship" in the ninth. The treatment of detail, as well as the organization within the several fields, and the bibliographies, will be helpful for teachers and suggestive to curriculum makers. (*University of Iowa Extension Bulletin*, January 1, 1924, College of Education Series, No. 1, 117 pp.)

Briefer Extension Bulletins already published provide a series of "Aids for History Teachers," including numbers on "The Correlation of History and Geography," "The High School Library," and "Textbooks in United States History," by Dr. Pierce, who also contributed earlier a thoughtful and suggestive article on "The Socialized Recitation."

Among the more recent of the increasing number of texts dealing with social and economic aspects of history is Harry B. Smith's *Industrial History* (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1923; 305 pp.). Taking "work" as the greatest constructive force in society, the author has attempted, within the brief compass of 284 pages, to trace the industrial history of both England and the United States. He first tells about the beginnings of trade, manorial life, the rise of the towns, the guilds, the growth of commerce, the rise of capitalism, the changes in agriculture, and the coming of the factory system in England. America gets only three chapters, totaling 117 pages. A final chapter briefly summarizes the history of industrial education in the United States. Within such space limits the material is extremely condensed, and one wonders why the author should have devoted his second chapter to almost purely political narrative. Considering the brevity of the work, he might well have omitted all the sections dealing with political history, devoting the space to a fuller treatment of the industrial topics. The book is, on the whole, sound historically, but some generalizations are open to question. For instance, there is no warrant for saying that industrial history does not begin "until the time when people had grown into separate nations, like the English, the Germans, and the Russians" (p. 8), or that social classes did not begin to form in America until the close of the colonial period (p. 188). It is doubtful if the book is fitted for grade pupils, but high school and vocational school students will readily use it. The illustrations are numerous and, on the whole, well chosen, but the usefulness of the volume might have been enhanced by the addition of bibliographical references and special topics for student research.—HARRY J. CARMAN.

Teachers who wish to give some attention to cultural history in their school courses will find *The Complete Book of the Great Musicians*, by Percy A. Scholes, a very useful aid. It combines in one volume three recent little books, entitled respectively *First*, *Second* and *Third Book of the Great Musicians*. These cover the field of modern music, though not consecutively, in a narrative sense. The *First* has eighteen chapters treating folk music—Purcell,

Handel, Bach, Hayden, Mozart, Beethoven, Schumann, Chopin, Grieg, Elgar, and McDowell—as well as "Fugues and How to Listen to Them," "Sonatas and Symphonies," "What is an Orchestra?" and "What is 'Romantic Music'?" The treatment is very simple and concrete; there is much personal detail, with numerous portraits; there are charts and bits of illustrative music. The other Books follow exactly the same plan, but with slightly more maturity of treatment. The *Second Book* tells about Schubert, Mendelssohn, Wagner, Verdi, Debussy, and others. The *Third Book*, Brahms, Cæsar Franck, Tchaikovsky, Clavichord-Harpsichord-Pianoforte, and other composers and subjects. The special attention to English music is natural in the case of an English author writing primarily for the young people of his own country. (Oxford University Press, New York; 348 pp., 46 full-page illus., \$4.20.)

"The Modern Readers' Series" provides at a moderate price well-made school editions of several works of biography and fiction of value for American social history. Hamlin Garland's *A Son of the Middle Border* has won a secure place as an engaging autobiography and a simply realistic picture of life in the great West. It is at once interesting and highly informing for youthful readers. Riis' *The Making of an American* is soon to be added. Two interesting historical novels, giving pictures of earlier American life in the West, have already been published—Mary S. Watts' *Nathan Burke* and William Allen White's *A Certain Rich Man*. Each volume contains a preface by the author and an introduction, notes, questions, and suggestions by the editor. Except for *Nathan Burke*, from which a number of supposedly undesirable passages are omitted, the text of each volume is complete. (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1923.)

Ethel Hedley Robson's *Dramatic Episodes in Congress and Parliament*, "a parliamentary reader for junior high schools and upper elementary grades," is an excellent type of school book, and in many respects very well done, but unhappily marred by a number of historical inaccuracies. Teachers are eager for good material of this kind, and author and publisher might well co-operate to bring out a revised and corrected edition. (Atlantic Monthly Press, Boston, 1923; 272 pp., \$1.25.)

The Greatest Story in the World, by Horace G. Hutchinson (D. Appleton & Co., New York, 1923; 232 pp., \$1.75). During his student days at Oxford Mr. Hutchinson won honors in the classics at Corpus Christi. Since then he has written extensively on golf, cricket, shooting, dreams, mysticism, and Lord Avebury. This book is in the nature of a return to his first love, for it is an attempt to present in simple and interesting narrative the political history (with occasional cultural side lights) of the ancient world from the prehistoric dawn to the establishment of the Roman Empire and the conquest of Jerusalem in 70 A. D. The task, within the rather narrow political limits defined, and barring inaccuracies (e. g., p. 67: Assyria, master of Babylon, about 1900 B. C.; p. 223: slight influence of religion upon the

Greeks and Romans), is fairly well done. However, American schools have little occasion to adopt such books when we have such textbooks as Breasted's *Ancient Times*, with its broader treatment and wider cultural appeal, and its far better maps and illustrations.—J. R. KNIPPING.

In *The Times of St. Dunstan* (Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York, 1923; 188 pp., \$3.50) Dr. J. Armitage Robinson does not, as he tells us in his preface, attempt "to tell the general story of the time"; his "main purpose....is to trace the origin and progress of the religious movement...." This he does largely through the discussion of certain aspects of the life and work of four men who stand out pre-eminently in the history of tenth century England—King Athelstan, St. Dunstan, St. Ethelwold, and St. Oswald. There are seven chapters and four additional notes as appendices. The first two chapters make hard reading for one who is

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not a specialist in the field; they are centered almost wholly around critical problems involved in the use of the sources. The five succeeding chapters flow rather more easily, but nowhere does the author have in mind the general reader. The book is too filled with critical detail to appeal to anyone but the student of the early history of Britain. To such an one it is welcome for the additional light which it throws on a period necessarily penumbral because of the paucity of the records which have survived. The author has brought to his task thorough knowledge, painstaking care, imagination, and power of analysis.

—AUSTIN P. EVANS.

Dr. Isaiah Bowman's admirable volume, *The New World*, "Problems in Political Geography" (see review note in THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, June, 1922), is now in course of revision. Pending the publication of the new edition, the author and publishers have made available a useful little *Supplement* containing a section of 77 pages on "The Situation in the United States," and one of 15 pages on "The Political Map of Turkey." An appendix contains outlines of the treaties and resolutions adopted by the conference on the limitation of armaments and the Tauna-Arica Protocol. A number of maps and charts and critically annotated bibliographies are included. (World Book Company, Yonkers, N. Y., 1923; paper.)

News of Associations

MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION.

The annual meeting of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland will be held in Baltimore, May 9th and 10th. On Friday afternoon a session will be held at the Emerson Hotel, under the auspices of the Maryland History Teachers' Association. After a subscription dinner at the same hotel on Friday evening, Dr. Charles A. Beard will speak upon the topic "Travel and History." The Saturday morning session, to be held at Johns Hopkins University, will discuss "The Present Status of the Social Studies." Professors Edgar Dawson and J. M. Gambrill will be the principal speakers. A business meeting will be held at the close of the morning session. On Saturday afternoon a very interesting automobile trip to historic Annapolis has been arranged by the local committee.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

The members of the Committee on the Program for the Richmond meeting of the American Historical Association, which will be held December 27 to 31, 1924, will be glad to receive suggestions as to papers which may be available for this meeting. These suggestions should be sent to the chairman of the committee, Professor St. George L. Sioussat, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

PENNSYLVANIA CONFERENCE.

During the Schoolmen's Week at the University of Pennsylvania a conference on the teaching of history and the social studies was held on April 10th, at which Professor W. E. Lingelbach presided. Professor Edgar Dawson reported upon the progress of the History Inquiry; Mr. R. O. Hughes spoke

upon the topic "The Organization and Methods of the Twelfth Grade Course in Problems of Democracy." Many persons present participated in the discussion, including Miss Jessie C. Evans, Dr. J. Lynn Barnard, Dr. H. R. Burch, and Dr. Renninger.

STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, CIRCULATION, ETC., REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF AUGUST 24, 1912 OF THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, published monthly, except July, August, and September, at Philadelphia, Pa., for April 1, 1924.
County of Philadelphia,
State of Pennsylvania,

Before me, a notary public in and for the State and County aforesaid, personally appeared Alfred C. Willits, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the business manager of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management (and if a daily paper, the circulation), etc., of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, embodied in section 443, Postal Laws and Regulations, printed on the reverse of this form, to wit:

1. That the names and addresses of the publisher, editor, managing editor, and business manager are:

Publisher, MCKINLEY PUBLISHING CO., 1619-21 Ranstead St., Philadelphia, Pa.

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2. That the owners are (give names and addresses of individual owners, or, if a corporation, give its name and the names and addresses of stockholders owning or holding 1 per cent. or more of the total amount of stock).

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5. That the average number of copies of each issue of this publication sold or distributed, through the mails or otherwise, to paid subscribers during the six months preceding the date shown above is.....

(This information is required from daily publications only.)

ALFRED C. WILLITS.

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 18th day of March, 1924.

JULIA M. O'BRIEN.

MISSISSIPPI VALLEY HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

As this issue goes to press there comes to hand the program of the Seventeenth Annual Meeting of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, to be held in Louisville, Kentucky, May 1st-3d. The Kentucky State Historical Society will hold its Annual Meeting at the same time and place. Joining in the entertainment of the Associations are the Filson Club, the University of Louisville, and the History Society of the University. The program promises to be an exceptionally interesting one.

Books on History and Government Published in the United States from February 23 to March 29, 1924.

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

AMERICAN HISTORY

Davis, Susan L. Authentic history of the Ku Klux Klan, 1865-1877. N. Y.: Am. Library Service. 328 pp. \$3.50.

Cole, Harry E. Stagecoach and Tavern Days in the Baraboo region. Baraboo, Wis.: Baraboo News Pub. Co. 72 pp.

Jeancon, J. A. Excavations in the Chama Valley, New Mexico. Wash., D. C.: Gov. Pr. Off., Supt. of Docs. 89 pp. 75 cents.

Mumby, Frank A. George III. and the American revolution: the beginnings. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 450 pp. \$5.00.

Ober, William. Guide to American history. N. Y.: Fordham Pub. Co. 104 pp. 40 cents.

Osgood, Herbert L. The American Colonies in the eighteenth century. [A continuation of the author's three volumes dealing with the seventeenth century.] N. Y.: Columbia Univ. Press. 584, 578 pp. Each \$5.50.

Schmeckebier, L. F. The customs service; its history, [etc.] Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press. 203 pp. (20 p. bibl.) \$1.50.

Schmeckebier, L. F., and Weber, G. A. The bureau of foreign and domestic commerce; its history, [etc.] Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press. 192 pp. (12 p. bibl.) \$1.00.

Smith, D. H., and Herring, H. G. The bureau of immigration; its history, [etc.] Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press. 259 pp. (4 p. bibl.) \$1.50.

Tucker, Howard A. History of Governor Walton's War on Ku Klux Klan. Oklahoma City, Okla.: Southwest Pub. Co. 67 pp.

Ware, Norman. The industrial worker, 1840-1860. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 270 pp. (6 p. bibl.) \$2.50.

Weber, G. A. The Patent Office; its history, [etc.] Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press. 139 pp. (9 p. bibl.) \$1.00.

West, W. Reed. Contemporary French opinion on the American civil war. Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press. 159 pp. (4 p. bibl.)

ANCIENT HISTORY

Baikie, James. A century of excavation in the land of the Pharaohs. N. Y.: Revell. 252 pp. \$3.00.

Burkitt, Miles C. Our forerunners, a study of palaeolithic man's civilizations in western Europe and the Mediterranean basin. N. Y.: Holt. 256 pp. (1 p. bibl.) \$1.00.

Philostratus. Life and times of Apollonius of Tyana. Stanford Univ., Cal.: Stanford Univ. 263 pp. \$2.00.

Suetonius, Tranquillus Caius. History of twelve Caesars. N. Y.: Dutton. 135 pp. \$5.00.

Tanzer, Helen H. The villas of Pliny the younger. N. Y.: Columbia Univ. Press. 174 pp. (5 p. bibl.) \$2.50.

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